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Wm. Rainey Keeler, 1903

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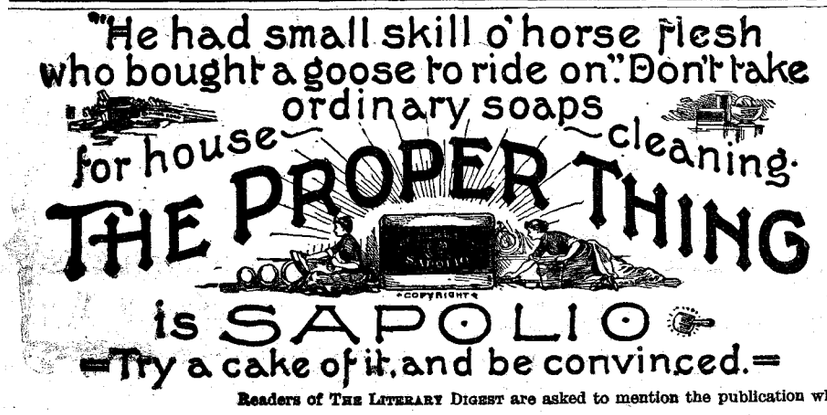
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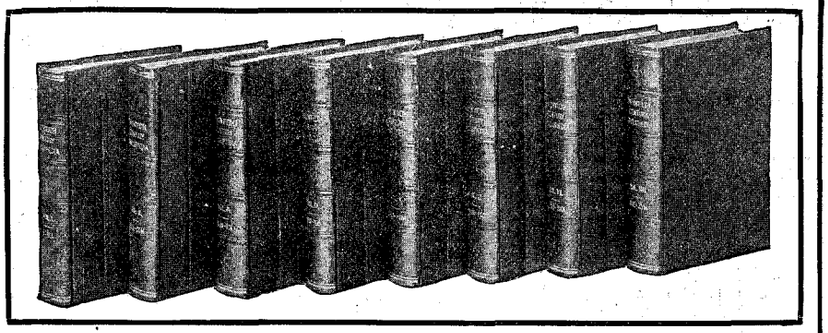

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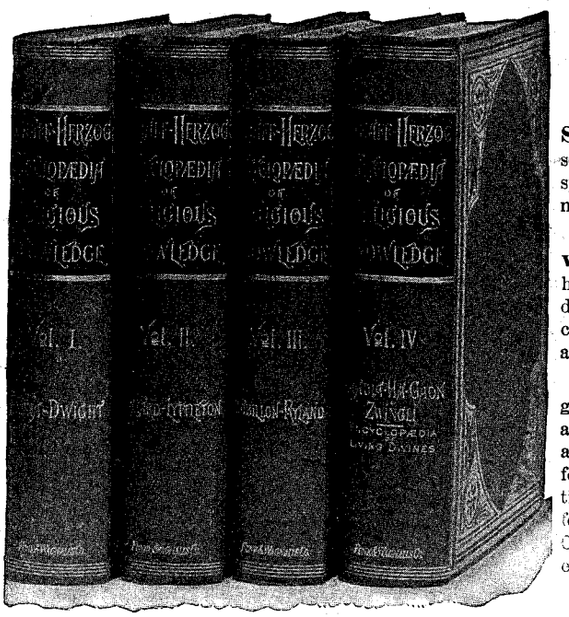

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TOPICS OF THE DAY.

THE OUTLOOK FOR PROSPERITY.

SOMETHING like an inventory of the country's business is being taken by the newspapers and commercial journals just now to find out how far the shrinkage in prices in Wall Street affects, or is due to, the state of trade in the nation at large. The decline in prices in Wall Street is reckoned by some as entailing a total loss of $2,000,000,000, and the failures there were for a short time a matter of daily occurrence. Failures throughout the country, according to *Dun's Review*, have also been severe in number and amount. Liabilities of insolvencies in the United States during July, so *Dun's* tells us, amounted to $16,751,245, as compared with $6,932,851 for the same month last year. No other July in the past decade, in fact, showed so great a loss, altho it appears from a table, covering the past five and one-half years, that several months have come near this record and two have gone beyond it, without upsetting our prosperity. December, 1899, went nearly a million dollars beyond July, and May, 1900, went seven millions beyond it. And as regards the number of failures, the July record (915), while uncommonly high, has been equaled time and again. Turning to *Bradstreet's*, the record is more encouraging. The July returns to that journal show only 719 failures, with liabilities of $8,633,352, or fewer embarrassments and a smaller aggregate of liabilities than in June, and fewer failures than in the same month a year ago, or, indeed, in any preceding July for ten years. In its review of the state of trade *Bradstreet's* says:

"Summed up in a sentence, it may be said that the past in trade and industry is satisfactorily secured, while the future, despite some mainly sentimental drawbacks, is highly promising. Divided geographically, it is to be noted that the East feels the influence of speculative liquidation, and the dulling effects on manufacturing of high prices of raw material, or of strikes, while the West and South contemplate the prospects of good yields of staple crops and remunerative prices for the same with confidence, and even optimism."

The Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Commerce at Washington reports that the internal trade of the country is still at flood-tide. It says:

"Statistics of the internal commerce of the United States for the first half of the current year, as compiled by the Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Commerce, show that 1903 is maintaining the prosperous conditions which characterized the preceding year. With few exceptions the volume of trade has equaled that of last year, and in some instances has exceeded it. It is particularly gratifying to learn that there is no evidence of a general recession in commercial activities corresponding to the extraordinary shrinkage in speculative value."

The Manufacturers' Record, of Baltimore, says, in an optimistic editorial:

"Wall-Street speculations have dazzled the country of late years. It has turned out multimillionaires who have swarmed over the land as tho the earth was theirs. High finance has had a wild day of booming everything good and bad, and now has come the inevitable collapse.

"But the country is safe.

"Wall Street's chill will not lessen by a single bushel the bounty of nature's harvest of wheat and corn and oats, nor by a single pound its yield of cotton. The farmers will rejoice in the same abundant prosperity which they have had for several years, and the manufacturer and the merchant will go right on doing business just as before. The 80,000,000 people—increasing at the rate of 20,000,000 every ten years—the most active and virile in the world, which are developing this country will pursue the even tenor of their way, producing and consuming more per capita than any oher nation on earth.

"There is no need to worry about the future. The laws of trade are settling many questions which have disturbed business men of late years, who in their foolish fears thought that these laws could be overruled and that a few men could grasp and dominate all financial, railroad, and industrial interests. Individual enterprise still counts, and energy and brains are still as important factors as ever. Wall Street has had an acute attack of indigestion, but Wall Street tried to absorb the country and found itself not quite equal to the task. And then a few Wall-Street gamblers undertook cut-throat measures to ruin in order to win, very much on the order of the train-wrecker, who displaces a rail in order to rob a train, regardless of the fact that the passengers may land in the next world. They, naturally, have had to suffer. But, above and beyond the Mafia-like feuds—the stabbing in the back, the shooting in the dark—which would do credit to Jackson county, Kentucky, is the fact that the momentum of progress and of wealth, with 80,000,000 people, backed by $100,000,000,000—the census estimate of the total wealth of the country—is too great for Wall Street to control. This country is at work creating more employment and more wealth than the world ever knew, and the task of trying to own it all is too big for Wall Street. With this fact demonstrated, the country at large will return to normal conditions and go forward with greater faith in the future than ever, for it will realize that economic debauchery of speculation has been halted, even if at an enormous cost to good as well as to bad securities. This will turn sober men and capital to legitimate business development and away from the maëlstrom of speculative excitement. The thunder-storm has cleared the atmosphere to that extent, tho the lightning has been rather destructive, and so while some projects may be temporarily halted, the vast business interests of the country will still afford an abundant opportunity for the men and the concerns who have the hustle and the energy to get their share. The curtain has probably been rung down on the spectacular performances of a Schwab, of a Gates, and, it is to be hoped, of a Keene and many others whose continued bizarre success would have proved an in-

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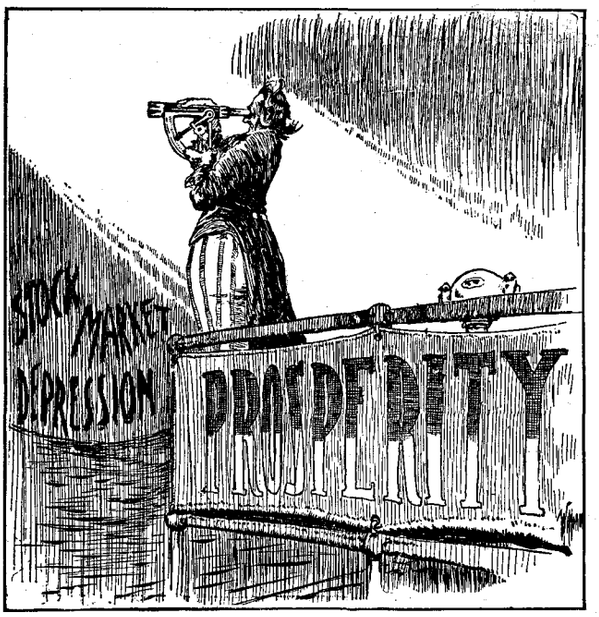

TAKING BEARINGS.

Longitude: Industrial activity. Latitude: Good crop reports.
—Williams in the Boston *Herald*.

DR. MORGAN'S EXPIRING PATIENT.

And there are others awaiting treatment.
—Melvill in *Boyce's Weekly*, Chicago.

PROSPERITY AND PANIC IN CARTOON.

jury to the whole country in creating false standards for American youths. Even Morgan no longer rules the earth, and other men may still do business without asking his permission."

AMERICAN NEWSPAPER COMMENT ON THE NEW POPE.

THE cabled accounts of the life and habits of Guiseppe Sarto, who has so suddenly and, it seems, unexpectedly, been elevated to become Pope Piux X., appeal strongly to the American mind and bring out the most favorable comment from the American press. Rising by sheer merit from humble birth to be Patriarch of Venice, it appears that he never permitted honors or position to keep him from deeds of mercy and charity among the poor, nor permitted ambition to swerve him from manly independence of action. These qualities, so much admired in this country, and the Pope's democratic spirit, shown in his greetings and in his dislike of too much ceremonial, have elicited not a little approving comment.

But the attitude of the new Pope toward important political problems remains as yet unknown, and our newspapers are awaiting with a good deal of anticipation some word or act that will reveal his policy. One of these is the problem of the friars in the Philippines; another is the problem of the religious orders in France; while the one that is regarded as most important of all is the deadlock between church and state in Italy, where many of the best class of Italians exclude themselves from participation in national politics for reasons of conscience. Every incident that can be made to throw light on the Pope's attitude toward these problems is reported and "interpreted" and speculated upon to such a degree that the new Pontiff himself might perhaps be astonished at the ideas and intentions attributed to him. The one point upon which the newspapers appear to agree is that Piux X. will bring to the solution of these problems a judgment as sane and sound as that of his illustrious predecessor.

More American Cardinals.—"Leo XIII. was bound by a solemn promise to Cardinal Gibbons that as long as he lived he would elevate no other American prelate to the Sacred College. Pius X., so far as is known, is under no such pledge to the Archbishop of Baltimore, and the accession of the Patriarch of Venice to the chair of St. Peter is, therefore, likely to result in the grant of another red hat to some representative dignitary of the Roman Catholic Church in the United States. For the conclave which has just been brought to a close has served to call attention to the fact that in view of the importance of the Roman Catholic Church in this country, and the vast resources which it commands, the influence which it exercises, and the funds which it supplies to the papacy, it deserves a larger share in the government of the church by the Sacred College than it now enjoys. It is, therefore, probable that at an early date Pius X. will create one or two additional American cardinals, who, while juniors in point of rank and seniority to his Eminence of Baltimore, will give a more effective representation to the United States than the latter is now enjoying in the senate of the Roman Catholic Church."—"*Ex-Attache*," *in the New York Tribune.*

New Spirit in the Church.—"Exactly as the past life of Pius X. has been devoted to purely ecclesiastical duties, so the church as a whole will gravitate in this direction. In Europe they are still living in blind ignorance of the ideal of a church which is supreme in the things of the next world, and leaves to Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's. Such a church all Americans know—and none more than those Americans who, by their membership in the Roman communion, come in actual contact with other ideals and another ambition in which the sword of Peter has not yet been returned to its sheath—has a power, an influence, a position which is possessed by no church which is trammeled by worldly relations. Nowhere in the modern world are churches more numerous, nowhere is there more lavish expenditure in their support, nowhere does religion enter more constantly into the daily life of men and women than in the United States. No penetrating traveler to this country for a half-century, as the tide of religion ebbed in Europe, and even in England, but is amazed at the respect and material support which things spiritual receive in this country. The Church of Rome—the one great organization which bridges the whelming wreck between the Old World and the New—is itself to begin under its new Pope its wide and general acceptance of this new ideal. Its acts and influence will be less visible on the page of daily annals. Its actual power will grow with every decade in which it returns to its earlier idea."—*The Philadelphia Press.*

A Democratic Church.—"The election of Joseph Sarto to fill the chair once occupied by St. Peter illustrates in a striking manner the democratic tendencies of the Roman Catholic Church. A man of the people, of origin most humble and obscure, takes the place of a born aristocrat with a line of noble ancestors. Sarto, the son of peasants, succeeds a scion of the great house of Pecci!

"The essential characteristic of the Roman Catholic Church, it has often been remarked, is to be found in its power to appeal successfully to the imagination and intellect of the greatest as well as the lowliest of people. That power, tho surrounded by pomp and

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ceremonial, imperial in aspect, is based—if you dismiss, for the sake of argument, the claim of divine origin set up by the Church of Rome—upon sound and equitable democratic principles, or, we might more accurately say, upon the principles of an enlightened and independent oligarchy. Viewed at this distance, certainly, no elevation of a human being to so exalted a place as that of supreme pontiff has appeared to be so free from worldly intrigue and to have been a simple recognition of merit, and of merit alone, as the selection by the conclave of Pius X. to be the head of the Roman Catholic Church.

"The new Pope, we have said, is of the humblest origin. His parents were poor peasants. His older brother is a letter-carrier in a provincial town with a salary of $80 a year. Another brother sells pork and tobacco—a queer combination—for a living. One sister is married to a man who keeps a wine-shop. Another sister is a dressmaker. Still another married a pedler. Surely, origin could not be humbler. Yet ever since he entered the priesthood Piux X. has had the reputation of a diligent student, profound thinker, and eloquent preacher. Added to this he has won in every place occupied by him the love and devotion of the people by his unostentatious sympathy for the poor, his charitable works, and his untiring energy in advancing the prestige of the church."—*The Washington Times*.

Pius X. and Christian Unity.—"While it is not probable that the adherents of the Protestant denominations will submit in great numbers to the authority of the Papacy, the wisest among them will welcome an end of ungenerous conflict and give earnest co-operation to well-designed effort to improve the spiritual and moral state of society, an end worthy to be sought in common by all followers of the Master with holy zeal. This is a time when earnest religious natures are less swayed by theological prejudices than ever before, and more ready to unite upon essential conditions of genuine Christian living; a time when the advantages of combination against selfish and delusive motives of human action are better apprehended and more generally sought.

"Under these circumstances, there is a call for strong, enlightened, tolerant, charitable leadership, and a certainty that it will have appreciation. Upon such leadership the reaction against present-day materialism, commercialism, and jingoism, all being phases of Antichrist, largely depends. Hence the ardent wish that the new Pope will prove to be a brave and generous helper of all whose aim is righteousness, the fundamental condition of freedom, peace, order, and contentment. Leo XIII., in his long service as a high priest of Christendom, did much to ameliorate the bitterness of prejudices that hindered progress. His notable successes were accomplished by his sweet reasonableness. His example placated the asperities of religious strife, and tended to the establishment of a commonwealth of Christendom.

"It is idle to expect that his successor will be an exact duplicate. There must be differences, due to character and discipline. But it is permissible to hope, and nothing now known here of the new Pope forbids the hope, that during his term of service there will be no backward lurch, no interruption of progress toward the right goal of humanity."—*The Boston Herald*.

SPREAD OF PROHIBITION IN THE SOUTH.

WHEN Vermont and New Hampshire abandoned the policy of prohibition of the liquor traffic, a few months ago, and adopted a high-license local-option law in its place, several papers declared that prohibition was a failure and that the Prohibitionist party was dead. The latest issues of *The New Voice*, an organ of the Prohibition party published in Chicago, however, claims that the party is more than offsetting the repudiation of its principles in those two States by making remarkable gains in the South. It says that the South "is now a hotbed of Prohibition agitation," and that that entire section has fewer saloons than the State of New York. The South has but 27,000 saloons, while New York has 34,000. The reports published in *The New Voice* show the prohibition situation in eleven of the Southern States. We summarize a few of the reports:

TEXAS—One hundred and thirty-six counties have total prohibition; 62 counties have partial prohibition, and 46 counties have unrestricted sale of liquors.

TENNESSEE—Out of 5,500 cities and towns in the State only 8 have unrestricted sale of liquors. In only 12 of the 96 counties can whisky be sold legally.

KENTUCKY—Forty-seven counties have total prohibition; 54 have partial prohibition, and 18 have unrestricted sale of liquors.

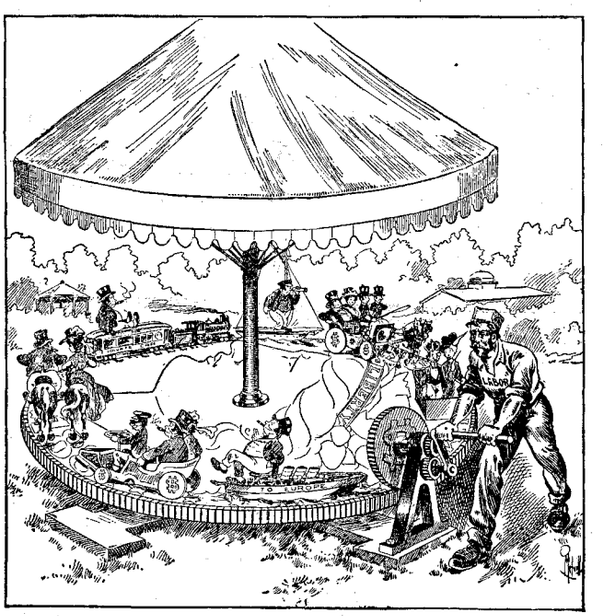
ARKANSAS—Forty-four counties have total prohibition; 2 counties have partial prohibition, and 29 have unrestricted sale.

MISSISSIPPI—Sixty-five counties out of 75 have prohibition, and out of 200 legislators all but a dozen or less have signified their approval of a referendum for state prohibition.

GEORGIA—One hundred and three counties out of 137 have prohibition.

Alonzo E. Wilson, chairman of the State Prohibition Committee of Illinois, believes that the progress of prohibition in the South is "largely due to the constantly increasing feeling that liquor must

THE AGITATOR—"Say, you're not using the right sort of building material. Here's the stuff you must use."
—Woodman in the Chicago *Journal*.



THE BILLIONAIRES' MERRY-GO-ROUND.
The energy that makes it go has no share in its pleasures.
—Melvill in *Boyce's Weekly*, Chicago.

LABOR IDEAS ILLUSTRATED.

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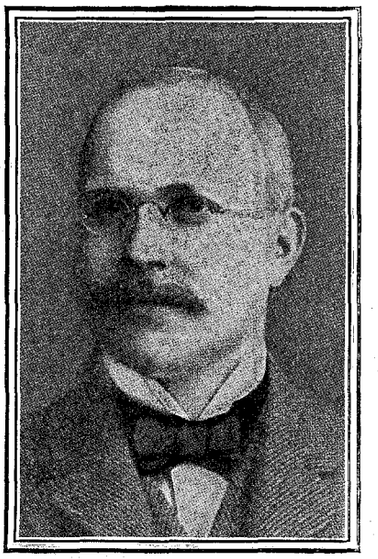
be kept away from the negro, and that public sale must accordingly be stopped." There are few foreigners in the South, he says, and "native Americans, as a rule, believe in temperance theories." This, he declares, "gives the temperance sentiment, once it gets started, a chance to spread, and it is spreading rapidly." On the other hand, the sweeping progress of prohibition in Texas is explained by the Galveston *News* to be the result of "the failure of liquor dealers to obey just and reasonable regulations attaching to their license." This failure of the saloon men to observe the laws regulating the sale of liquors, *The News* says, has caused them to be rated as a lawless class, and has induced many persons to vote for local prohibition who otherwise would not have done so. It says that the liquor dealers in Texas have only themselves to blame for the public interference with their traffic. The Kansas City *Journal* remarks:

"It is hard to realize that a successful campaign is being waged against the use of alcoholic drinks in Texas; but such is the case. More than one hundred counties in that big State have closed the doors of the saloons, while the entire State evinces a strong tendency to fall into the prohibition procession. The movement has extended across the northern border and entered Oklahoma. Some of the southwestern counties of that Territory, the people of which are mostly Texans and Southerners, are agitating the question so lively that the issue has been sharply drawn. The Prohibitionists both in Oklahoma and in Indian Territory seem to be wakening into a hopeful life. Congress passed a law in 1886, requiring that the nature of alcoholic drinks and narcotics, and special instruction as to their effect upon the human system in connection with the subjects of physiology and hygiene, shall be included in the branches of study taught in the common and public schools, and all Indian and colored schools, in the Territories. Heavy penalties are imposed for the violation of these provisions. The law has not been enforced with much generality in the past, but the W. C. T. U. has brought the matter to the attention of the proper authorities. The action of this organization was taken undoubtedly for the purpose of beginning a campaign for temperance."



WILLIAM E. COREY,
Who succeeds Mr. Schwab as president of the steel trust.

REFLECTIONS ON MR. SCHWAB'S RETIREMENT.

THE rise and fall of Charles M. Schwab, who retired from the presidency of the United States Steel Corporation last week, afford a theme that the editorial writers of the daily press are not slow to seize upon. Grocer's clerk at 17, with a salary of $2.50 a week, then stake-driver at a dollar a day, then rising with marvelous swiftness to be the right-hand man of Andrew Carnegie in the steel business, and stepping from there to the presidency of the largest single organization of capital the world has ever known, Mr. Schwab became the bright and shining example for American youth. He was interviewed, written up, photographed, and followed around by reporters both here and abroad so that nothing he should say or do might be lost. That was two years ago. Soon rumors began to be heard that Mr. Schwab's health was giving way under the strain of business; then came a number of trips to Europe and sojourns at seaside resorts for rest, and now comes retirement, with "nervous breakdown," at the age of 41.

Many of the newspapers seem to think that there must have been something wrong with Mr. Schwab, physically, mentally, or morally, or he would have been able to carry the load. The directors of the steel corporation, however, appear to have reached the conclusion that Mr. Schwab's work was too much for any one man, and they have divided the work between Mr. William E. Corey, the new president, Judge Gary, who is made president of the board of directors, and an advisory committee of three directors, who will consider questions of manufacturing, transportation, and operation. Mr. Schwab says that his plans for the future are "to try to get better."

The Pittsburg papers think that Mr. Schwab has done as well as any one man could have done in such a position. "As a captain of industry," says the Pittsburg *Dispatch*, "the name of Schwab will go down with those of Frick and Carnegie, indelibly stamped upon the industrial history of the nation and the world." Some other papers treat him more severely. Thus the Chicago *News* says:

"Schwab has done much to kill the rage for investing in the shares of great industrial combines. His performances among the shipyards of this country, no less than at Monte Carlo, have given the public an instructive object-lesson as to the recklessness and lack of moral fiber which sometimes go along with great financial and administrative success. Wall Street has felt the result of this object-lesson. It is all well enough to issue dazzling reports of commercial successes achieved and of new worlds conquered or about to be conquered, but behind them must be a fair degree of old-fashioned morality before the investor can feel certain that he is not being led toward a precipice. Schwab as an example for young men has proved a melancholy failure. He had the necessary shrewdness. He lacked the necessary moral sense.

"The downfall of Schwab, among other things, is a tribute to the staying qualities of the homely virtues which can not be safely excluded from Wall Street if the public is in a position to find it out. All the trusts are sadder and wiser to-day because of Schwab. He has served to open investors' eyes. A little less splurge and more copper-bottomed honesty will go well with the future management of shipyard trusts, steel trusts, and other trusts."

The New York *Journal of Commerce* thinks that if Mr. Schwab had stuck to manufacturing steel, and had not tried to mingle in matters of *haute finance*, he would have succeeded. It remarks:

"His natural endowment, his practical training, his years of experience, had made him an efficient manager of the operations of iron- and steel-making, but they had not made him a great financier or a broad-minded man of affairs. They had not taught him the judicious use of wealth and of a large income, and at that giddy height, surrounded by magnates and courted by parasites, he lost his poise. His head ceased to be level. He was not looking after the details of steel-making, but attending meetings of directors and committees and living sumptuously every day. He began to invest and to speculate, even to 'plunge,' and entered upon a course that was sure to precipitate him from the eminence so suddenly attained. How far it was his fault, how far it was due to the influences that surrounded him, how far it was the decree of fate, it is not necessary to inquire; but as the head of the steel trust, the president of the greatest corporation on earth, Charles M. Schwab did not prove a success.

"It is not necessary to imply that the impairment of his health was not real, or to inquire too curiously into the cause of it. A change in his way of living and certain distractions of his new position may have contributed to it, but too close a devotion to the interests of the steel corporation was hardly the chief cause. He broke down physically because he was not intellectually and morally equal to the place he was called upon to fill, and he put himself to a strain which he could not bear outside of the strict line of its duties. The decline is a sad one, and it has a serious lesson. It is not worth while to question the transparent explanation of the circumstances of the resignation as due solely to ill-health and accepted reluctantly at Mr. Schwab's insistence. It does not matter. After working his way and rising by merit to an eminent place in a great industry, he was suddenly elevated by circumstances

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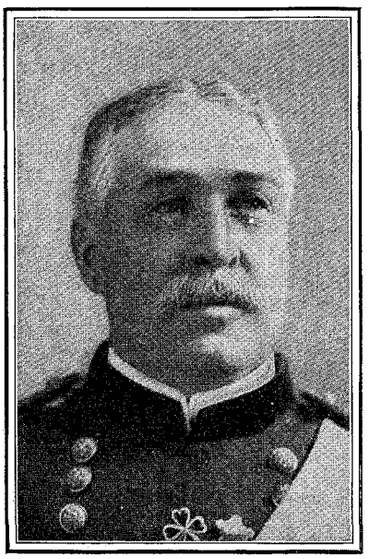
above it into the realm of promoters and financiers, and the atmosphere was not native to him. It was not a sphere in which he was fitted to shine. Whether after these two unhappy eventful years his associates desired to fill his place with some one else, or he desired to escape from it into peaceful retirement and a chance to recover his health, is of little consequence. The lesson remains, and is an impressive one for the youth of the country."

The Pittsburg *Gazette* has this to say of Mr. Schwab's successor:

"William E. Corey, who succeeds Mr. Schwab as president of the United States Steel Corporation, has been succeeding Mr. Schwab throughout his active business career. As the one advanced the other followed. Both were trained in the same practical school, and the election of Mr. Corey means there is to be no change in the policies and methods of the corporation. It is a recognition of the superiority of the Pittsburg practise by the directors of the great concern and a guarantee of continuance of manufacturing methods that have won world supremacy and incited emulation on the part of the captains of industry of foreign lands."

RETIREMENT OF LIEUTENANT-GENERAL MILES.

DURING the eight years in which Gen. Nelson A. Miles has been the commanding general of our army he has made enough friends and enemies to save the newspaper editorials on his retirement from that mediocrity that sometimes characterizes such notices. A commanding general whose allegations in regard to army beef played a large part in forcing Secretary Alger's resignation, who had enough influence with the Senate to prevent the passage of Secretary Root's army reorganization bill until modified to suit his wishes, and whose revelations of Philippine affairs kept his superiors in hot water a large part of the time that Congress was in session last winter, does not now close his official relations with the army without some parting congratulations and parting shots. The general reached the age of retirement (sixty-four) on last Saturday, and is succeeded by Gen. S. B. M. Young, who will reach the age of retirement on January 9 next. It is considered likely that Generals Sumner, Chaffee, MacArthur, and Corbin will each hold the position in turn for a short time before retirement. The successors of General Miles, however, will each be merely the chief of the general staff (under the provisions of the new army bill, which goes into effect August 15), and will not have the power that General Miles had. The absence of compliment in the order retiring General Miles has aroused some severe criticism, not only in the opposition press, but in some Republican papers that have heretofore been counted among his critics.



LIEUT.-GEN. S. B. M. YOUNG,
Who succeeds General Miles in command of the army.

A favorable view of the general may be seen in the following editorial by the Philadelphia *Ledger*:

"With the retirement of Lieutenant-General Miles there will pass from active service the last of the officers of the army who gained distinction in the Civil War. A few remain who served in those tremendous campaigns, but when it is considered that a man who is now sixty-four was but twenty-four in the year of Gettysburg and Vicksburg, it is plain that these veterans were mostly but subalterns then. Miles was a young volunteer, but unusual capacity, joined with opportunity, won him rank and fame, and in the reorganization of the army after the war he was one of the best-known volunteer officers who were retained in the regular service. The work of the army was then mainly on the Western frontier, and Miles proved one of the bravest, ablest, and most brilliant of Indian fighters, winning for himself a fresh fame that even outshone that which he had achieved before. In the pacification of the great West civilization owes more to General Miles than to any other man now living, and his military and administrative achievement there added luster to the proud record of the army. It is to the shame of the service that the selfish and unworthy jealousies of a group of non-combatants at Washington strove assiduously to deprive this brilliant officer of the honor and authority he had so fully won and of the new opportunities that were justly his. He would have been more or less than a man had he not shown resentment at the studied neglect with which he was treated in the war with Spain; but the nation never misunderstood him, nor failed in appreciation, and he carries into retirement, at an age when he is not capable of the best of service, the enthusiastic admiration and affection of all who know how to honor the high qualities of a soldier and a gentleman. He leaves no one who can be named in the same class with himself, either in experience or achievement."

An unfavorable view appears in the following paragraph from the Providence *Journal*:

"In spite of a splendid record General Miles has been a failure as commander in the War Department. His plan for the occupation of Cuba during the war with Spain was so disliked that an attempt was made to suppress it, and his suggestions for the Philippines were almost equally impractical. He has wasted thousands of dollars on useless experiments in the ordnance department, and his artillery recommendations were generally disapproved. Thus, while he has retained his physical vigor and was able to give proof of his endurance by the remarkable ride the other day of ninety miles on horseback over a rough country in nine hours, he resembles in many respects General Scott, who was swept out of office by the Civil War, which brought with it conditions with which he was not fit to cope and which he could hardly even understand. And yet General Scott was a hero in the Mexican War, whose laurels naturally led to his creation as commanding general. No one questioned his previous ability or his personal bravery, but he seemed to follow the example of so many other leaders and 'lose his grip' after he had successfully grasped one great opportunity. Such exhibitions as are afforded by the lives of Scott and Miles incline one to believe in the theory of the sages that no man can have more than one opportunity for splendid achievement, and that unless a long life is marked by moderate attainment, the brightness of really great deeds is likely to be tarnished by subsequent failures."

THE OPPOSITION TO BOOKER T. WASHINGTON.

THE riot in a negro church in Boston a few days ago, when a number of negroes tried to break up a meeting that was being addressed by Booker T. Washington, has called attention to the opposition to Professor Washington that is developing within the ranks of his own race. If this opposition becomes formidable, it is believed, the usefulness of the great educator will be seriously impaired. One prominent negro says that ninety-five per cent. of his people are not in sympathy with Mr. Washington and his work, —while another declares that the opposition is confined to a small clique of would-be leaders, who are jealous. According to the Boston newspapers the negroes who tried to break up the meeting were in a very small minority, led by Editor Trotter, of *The Guardian*, armed with an umbrella, his sister Maud, who attacked a policeman with a hatpin, Mr. Granville Martin, a colored butler, and another negro named Charles, who was more or less seriously carved by a razor in the hands of some unknown colored auditor who wanted to hear Professor Washington and resented the interruption. When these four had been removed by the police, Mr. Washington went on with his speech without further opposition.

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THOSE THAT PLAY WITH FIRE MAY EXPECT TO BE BURNED.
—Terry in the St. Paul *Dispatch*.

Mr. Washington said, when the meeting had quieted down, that he fully appreciated the fact that the tumult had been caused by only a few men, and the Boston *Advertiser* remarks corroboratively that "without much question he has the quiet indorsement of a majority in numbers, if not in standing, of the colored people in this city." And *The Colored American*, of Washington, says that the negroes of the entire country are with him.

Others, however, take a much less hopeful view. The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* thinks that the negro nature is radically wrong, and believes that the Boston riot must convince Mr. Washington "that his missionary work in behalf of his people has been largely thrown away." And the Atlanta *News* says similarly:

"If the matter were brought down to a real test, we express the belief that Booker Washington to-day could not carry upon a vote one-third or one-fourth of the negroes of the South in indorsement either of his ideas or of his conservative and sensible plans. What the negro of the South wants, and longs for and yearns after and in his heart demands is speedy equality with the white man in every particular, and Booker Washington leads not the sentiment of his people, but the good sense of the saving few who see that the things which the negro craves are impossible in these two decades or in these five decades, if they are ever possible.

"So, the mass of the negro race either follows Booker Washington apathetically, indorses him tamely, or protests him altogether.

"In the old days of slavery there used to be upon every plantation certain negroes who would report the misdoings of their race to the overseer or to their masters. These negroes earned their rewards from the white authorities, but enjoyed the execration and hatred of their fellows. They were called 'white-folks' niggers.' And to-day, by the mass of his race throughout the country—more particularly by the radically ambitious of the negro fanatics in Chicago, Boston, New York, and elsewhere, seeking preferment and yearning for equality and breathing antagonism—Booker Washington is regarded, not as the Moses of his race and the philanthropist of his time, but simply as a 'white-folks' nigger.'

"And as such he has the distrust and in many instances the hatred of that large and, perhaps, majority element of his race who can never be converted to the pacific wisdom and judgment of his life and policies.

"It is all well for the country to indorse Booker Washington and his crusade, for, upon the surface and by all the external indications, he richly deserves it.

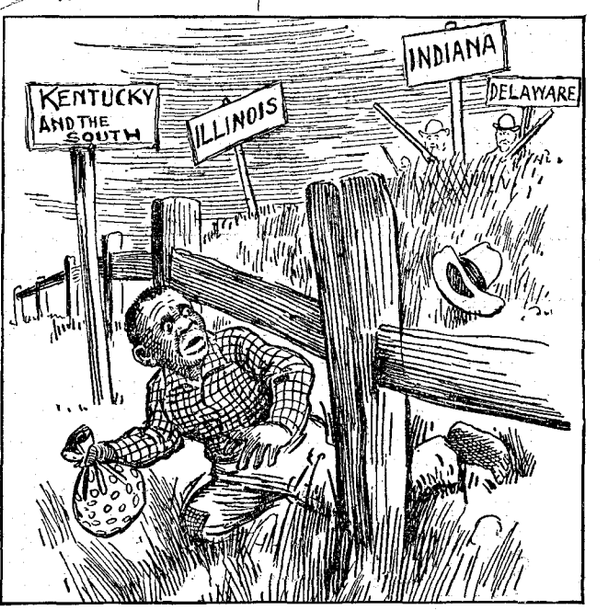
"The people who know anything know that Booker Washington's statesmanship is of the statesmanship that enlists the sympathy and cooperation of the great mass of his race.

"This is the lesson which the incident in the Boston church will serve to point distinctly to the intelligent and information-seeking people of America."

Rev. Reverdy C. Ranson, pastor of a negro church in Chicago, said in his sermon on August 2 that "Mr. Washington urges the surrender of our rights," and that if his program was carried out "it would result in the establishment of a serf class." He went on:

"We acknowledge that Mr. Washington is the foremost colored man of the present generation. He is intellectual, eloquent, and an untiring worker. But he does not believe as his people believe, and in promulgating his propaganda of surrender of rights he does not represent his people. The revolt at Boston was the first that has reached the public. There would be others if Mr. Washington did not control the strong papers conducted by colored men and if they expressed the sentiments of the people. By the people I mean our people and the thinking, liberty-loving white people of this country, who believe that the colored man should have every right and be permitted to enjoy every righ the is given under the law. Mind, I do not by this advocate force. Far from it. But I do insist that a colored man should have the right to vote, to own his own

AND HOW HE REALLY IS.
—*The Nashville American*.



DOOR OF HOPE.
—Berryman in the Washington *Post*.

BLACK AND WHITE SKETCHES.

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home, to transact his business, have a fair trial if he commits a crime, just as a white man does, and that he should be deprived of none of these. These are the things the colored people stand for, and they will not countenance any surrender."

THE REVOLT IN MACEDONIA.

THE accounts of murder, dynamiting, destruction of villages, sanguinary uprisings, and equally sanguinary suppressions have again drawn attention to Macedonia. Whether this blaze will fire the powder-magazine that is supposed to be located in that quarter is the main topic of speculation; and that event is thought by many to depend on whether the flame reaches Bulgaria. The Bulgarians are reported to be strongly in favor of joining in a war on the Turk for Macedonian independence, and if the Turkish measures of repression are too severe, it is feared that Prince Ferdinand will not be able to restrain his people. So the Bulgarian agitators are trying to provoke the Turk to extreme measures. As the Pittsburg *Gazette* explains it:

"Bulgarian and Macedonian agitators have perpetrated continuous outrages in the hope of inflaming the masses, and apparently they have succeeded in exhausting Turkish patience. The Turk has only been restrained up to the present time by the order of the Powers to keep hands off Bulgaria and to introduce prescribed reforms in Macedonia. The cables now indicate that the Turk has thrown off this restraint and proposes to at once inaugurate a campaign of pillage and slaughter, inciting fanatical Mohammedans to exterminate the Christian trouble-makers.

"This war of extermination is exactly what the Bulgarian agitators have been trying to bring about. They do not believe that Russia and Austria will permit the Turks to annihilate the Christian population of the Balkan states. Their program is to first have Bulgaria declare war in behalf of the Macedonians and to keep the turmoil going until Russia or Austria, or possibly both, shall intervene. Their ultimate object is to have the Balkan territories taken from Turkish rule, and it is not improbable that Turkey's resolution to begin active operations will lead to that result. The Powers have not wanted to be mixed in the matter, but they may find it impossible to stay out, for once the Turk is started he knows neither reason nor humanity.

"If Russia becomes involved, there is little doubt it will endeavor to make Turkey pay as the price of hostilities the surrender of Constantinople and the Bosporus. That will let Russia down to the Mediterranean. It has long desired to reach that goal. It was prevented from securing it at the conclusion of the last war with Turkey by the interference of the other Powers of Europe. Since then it has avoided conflict in order to develop its financial position and industrial resources. But if Russia is forced to fight for the restoration of peace on its Balkan borders it will not be cheated again. It will take over the direct management of the turbulent territory, and it will take along with that troublesome charge its coveted outlet to the southern sea. Hence the situation may fairly be regarded as a very serious one."

The New York *Tribune* thinks that since war is inevitable sooner or later, it would be better to have it sooner:

"News of the Balkan revolt will, we imagine, be pretty widely received with a certain grim satisfaction, or at least with resignation. It has long been evident that that part of the world is, in Hibernian phrase, 'spoiling for a fight.' It has been regarded as certain that sooner or later there must be a serious conflict there. That being the case, we may confidently say, the sooner the better. The longer such a struggle is delayed, the worse it is likely to be when it does come. Besides, the longer it is delayed, the longer will be the preliminary campaign of kidnaping woman and murdering men and levying blackmail and all the other variegated deviltries with which the Bulgarian propagandists have made the world familiar."

TOPICS IN BRIEF.

THE trusts evidently forgot that one of their chief missions was to steady our financial conditions.—*The Detroit News-Tribune.*

IN the German, Mr. Machen's name means "to make," and the man seems to have been most happily named.—*The Detroit Free Press.*

THAT noise like the hired girl cleaning the furnace is caused by Charley Towne dodging the Democratic presidential bee.—*The Washington Post.*

SCHWAB a chronic rest-seeker! Gates breaking down! Now is the time to republish their remarks on how to succeed in life.—*The New York World.*

KING MENELIK, of Abyssinia, is credited with having 110,000 pounds of gold bullion, but we are not informed as to what postal contract he holds.—*The Washington Post.*

MR. SCHWAB did not succeed in breaking the bank at Monte Carlo, but the bank at Monte Carlo had disastrous results for Mr. Schwab.—*The New York World.*

KING EDWARD has visited his loyal subjects in Ireland. He ought to make a trip across the water to receive the homage of Newport.—*The St. Louis Globe-Democrat.*

KNOWING that it is promised that the first shall be last and the last first, Sir Thomas should promised that the third will be the last *Shamrock*, and therefore the first. There doesn't seem to be any other way of bringing it about.—*The Detroit Tribune.*

DR. LIPTON—"Your condition, of course, is not alarming; but a trip abroad would do you a world of good.
—Ehrhart in *Puck.*

HARMONY IN THE POPULIST PARTY.
—Bart in the Minneapolis *Journal.*

HOPEFUL CAMPAIGNERS.

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LETTERS AND ART.

"WHY NOT SPEAK ENGLISH?"

"BEFORE the year 2000 English will have forced its right to be considered a world language," states Prof. Brander Matthews, of Columbia University. He reminds us that at the beginning of the nineteenth century English was the native speech of a few more than twenty millions of men and women, while at the end of the century it was spoken by nearly a hundred and thirty millions; and he predicts that before the year 2000 the number of those who use it as their natural speech will be between two hundred and fifty millions and five hundred millions. As to the fitness of English to meet the requirements of a world language, Professor Matthews points out that it is an easy language to learn by word of mouth, owing to its having "discarded most of the elaborate syntactical machinery, which still cumbers more primitive languages, like the Russian, its future rival, and the German, its chief Teutonic sister-tongue." He finds its most obvious defect in the fact that "its orthography is more barbarous and more unscientific than that of any other of the important languages." He argues that in the course of its evolution English must undergo still further simplifications in both syntax and orthography, and further urges that this growth toward simplicity can be directed and stimulated by those who wish to see the language made fitter for wider service. In this connection he pleads for definite action in regard to certain foreign words which have been adopted by our language and yet remain hybrids in form. Of these words he writes, in *Harper's Monthly Magazine* for August, as follows:

"Certain words there are which linger along the borders. Some of these seem to have taken out their papers, but have not yet received their full citizenship. Their position is pitiful and anomalous; and it is the object of the present essay to call attention to their condition and to suggest that the time has come to make a decision, and either to take them into our own tongue or to cast them out finally. It is not wholesome for our own language to employ foreign words, governed by the rules of a foreign grammar, and rebellious to those of our own. If these words are useful and necessary, we ought to admit them to full rights, and to insist that they obey the regulations of our language. In time, no doubt, that tendency toward uniformity which is potent in every language will probably enforce regularity upon these alien words; but there is no reason why we should not hasten the coming of this millennium by a concerted effort. In other words, why not speak English?

"Is *cherub* an English word? If so, its plural is *cherubs*, and not the Hebrew *cherubim*. Is *lexicon* an English word, and *criterion* also? If so, their plurals are *lexicons* and *criterions*, not the Greek *lexica* and *criteria*. Is *appendix* an English word, and *index* and *vortex?* If so, the plurals are *appendixes* and *indexes* and *vortexes*, and not the Greek *appendices*, *indices*, and *vortices*. Is *memorandum* an English word, and *curriculum*, *gymnasium*, *medium*, and *sanatorium?* If so, their plurals are *memorandums*, and *curriculums*, *gymnasiums*, *mediums*, and *sanatoriums*, and not the Latin *memoranda*, *curricula*, *gymnasia*, *media*, and *sanatoria*. Is *formula* an English word, and *nebula* also? If so, the plural is *formulas* and *nebulas*, and not the Latin *formulæ* and *nebulæ*. Is *beau* an English word, and *bureau?* If so, the plural is *beaus* and *bureaus*, and not the French *beaux* and *bureaux*. Is *libretto* an English word? If so, its plural is *librettos*, and not the Italian *libretti*. Why not speak English?

Crisis is thoroughly acclimated in the English language, and so is *thesis;* and yet there are those who prefer *crises* and *theses* to the normal and regular *crisises* and *thesises*. Perhaps they are seeking to avoid the unpleasant hissing of the English plural; but none the less they are falling into pedantry. So *cactus* and *focus*, *bacillus* and *syllabus*, were each of them incorporated into English long, long ago; and yet some who ought to know better—or who ought at least to have better taste and to have a deeper respect for their own speech—persist in giving these necessary words a Latin plural, and speak about *cacti* and *foci*, *bacilli* and *syllabi*—until one begins to suspect that if they dared they would like to write *omnibi*. *Opera*, which was a Latin plural, has become an English singular, of which the plural is *operas;* and there seems to be some probability that another Latin plural, *candelabra*, may in time be accepted as an English singular, and that we shall calmly describe a pair of *candelabras*. And why not? Why not a *candelabra* as well as an *opera?* Why not speak English? Already do we say *prima donnas*, and not *prime donne*, *bravos* and not *bravi*. If a word has not been absorbed and assimilated into English, then no doubt it should take its foreign pronunciation and its foreign plural; and it should be printed in italics to denote that it is a foreigner. But there are writers not a few who accept *crisis* and *libretto* and *cactus* and *criterion* and their fellows as good English words, not to be singled out by the use of italics, and who still like to parade their own pedantry by insisting on the foreign plurals.

"It is not the true scholar who is guilty of the cheap effrontery. The true scholar knows his own language, and does not quarrel with his tools. Possessing his own speech, he is able to make that accomplish his purpose without invoking the aid of foreign allies.

"Matthew Arnold, for example, and Lowell, also, were both of them careful to use the English word *technic*, and to avoid the French *technique*. Other scholars have set a good example in writing *closure* and not *clôture*, *revery* and not *reverie*, *cotery* and not *cotérie*, *repertory* and not *répertoire*, *conservatory* and not *conservatoire*, *concessionary* and not *concessionnaire*, *grip* and not *grippe*, *employee* and not *employé*, *exposure* or *exposition* and not *exposé*, *understanding* and not *entente*, *comic actress* and *tragic actress* and not *comédienne* and *tragédienne*, *renascence* and not *renaissance*.

"There is no reason why we should employ the French *résumé* when we have the English *summary* and *synopsis*. There is no reason why we should take pleasure in describing a young man engaged to be married as a *fiancé*. There is every reason why we should not make use of *pianiste* as tho it was the feminine of *pianist*, and *artiste* as tho it was the feminine of *artist*,—since a very elementary knowledge of French would inform us that *artiste* and *pianiste* are both masculine. There is every reason why we should not indulge in *nom de plume* and in *double-entendre*—since neither of these phrases has any place in the French dictionary. . .

"Some writers there are, both in Great Britain and the United States, who seem to be in doubt whether or not *encore* and *chaperon* are frankly to be accepted as English words in good standing, overlooking the fact that the decision has been rendered in both cases, as is proved by the past participles *encored* and *chaperoned*."

ABRAHAM LINCOLN AND AMERICAN LITERATURE.

"ABRAHAM LINCOLN is in his own person almost as much a justification of the claim that there is a truly American literature as of the essential vitality of American democracy"—thus writes Prof. William P. Trent, in his new "History of American Literature, 1607–1865." In associating the name of Lincoln with literature, Professor Trent does not claim for him an exalted place as a man of letters. On the contrary, he admits that were Lincoln still alive "he would probably put an end with some racy story to the attempts to write monographs on his style and to give him a high place among American authors." To quote further:

"Lincoln justifies the claim that there is a truly American literature, because it seems impossible that the country that could produce such an original product in the shape of a man should have been completely sterile in the matter of original creation in letters. The most distinctive note of American literature is its applicability to the needs of a healthy minded, sound-hearted people. Franklin in one field, Cooper in another, Longfellow and Whittier in yet another, in spite of their indebtedness to British and Continental culture, were genuine American products and appealed to their readers because what they wrote was applicable to American conditions. Lincoln arose to the presidency because in the field of politics he comprehended the demands of those plain people who at least knew Longfellow's 'Village Blacksmith' and the 'Psalm of Life.' Lincoln's letters, his speeches against Douglas, his admirable, clear, and brave address at the Cooper Union in 1860, and his state papers reveal how thoroughly he was a part of that people which had determined the democratic, utilitarian trend of the national literature. . . . Simplicity and wholesomeness of demo-

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cratic appeal mark the words and deeds of Lincoln and the books of the popular authors contemporary with him. But both Lincoln and these authors could draw inspiration not only from American life, but from English culture. Lincoln drew from his reading of the Bible and Shakespeare, and from the depths of his originally noble and variedly trained nature, that sublimely simple eloquence that makes the short address at Gettysburg and passages from the two inaugurals not merely classic utterances securely fixed in the memory of the race, but flawless expressions of his own great soul. His name closes an important era of American history which it is just becoming possible to treat dispassionately; it is a fitting and auspicious name with which to close an account of the development of American literature."

MORE ABOUT THE ARTISTIC ASPECT OF THE SKY-SCRAPER.

MR. ALBERT W. BARKER recently called attention to the new motive and ideal given to architecture, and to the new architectural problems presented, by the modern sky-scraper (see THE LITERARY DIGEST for August 8). Mr. Montgomery Schuyler, in the pages of the August *Scribner's Magazine*, adds something to the discussion of this subject. According to Mr. Schuyler, the only examples of the sky-scraper building which can be acclaimed as architectural successes belong to what he calls the transitional period. Among these successes he mentions the Union Trust in New York and the Monadnock in Chicago. But of the modern and extreme sky-scraper he tells us there is no example which commends itself as an architectural success. He continues:

"There are very few examples of it which are entitled to respectful consideration, even as earnest and artistic attempts to express that construction. To express, that is to say, not the simulacrum of a building of masonry, but to express the idea of a frame building wrapped in a protective envelope of stone or clay. The Guaranty Building in Buffalo and the Bayard Building in New York are almost alone in entitling themselves even to this consideration, and their author almost the only architect who has really stated the architectural problem, not to speak of solving it. The extreme sky-scraper that we know and disrespect presents in its front an obviously irrelevant compilation of historical architecture, while its equally conspicuous sides and rear make no pretensions to architecture at all. It is only not his head which the architectural ostrich flatters himself is hidden and requests us to ignore.

"And the architectural problem which presents itself to individual architects, in so few cases with even the recognition of it on their part, is less urgent than the civic problem. If every architect employed to erect a sky-scraper should do his very utmost to produce a logical, sincere, and beautiful exposition of what he was doing, their united efforts would leave the city of skyscrapers little less appreciably ugly than before. How can it be otherwise when each owner's view of his own interest is the only rule he is bound to follow, and when this view leads one owner to build ten stories, a second twenty, and a third thirty? Like Frankenstein, we stand appalled before the monster of our own creation, literally

Monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lumen ademptum.

"These things have turned the sky line of New York into a horribly jagged sierra, and converted the commercial quarters of all our chief commercial cities into gloomy and windy cañons. There is, to be sure, another aspect of such places as the lower end of Manhattan Island and the business district of Chicago, and that is the tremendously, the almost awfully impressive expression they give of human energy and of American individualism. Hear how it strikes a stranger! The stranger is Mr. Steevens, that brilliant British journalist who died at Ladysmith, too early lost, and the occasion his first impression of New York in 1896:

> Never have I seen a city more hideous or more splendid. Uncouth, formless, piebald, chaotic, it yet stamps itself upon you as the most magnificent embodiment of Titanic energy and force. . . . . The very buildings cry aloud of struggling, almost savage, unregulated strength. It is the outward expression of the freest, fiercest individualism.

"Everybody will admit that if we had a city of 'magnificent distances,' a city of which the great avenues bore the same relation to a ten-story cornice line of bordering buildings that our actual streets bear to the three-story buildings with which those who laid them out expected them to be lined, there would be no hardship at all and no grievance in fixing a ten-story cornice line for such streets. In fact, in order to domesticate the sky-scraper and bring it within the reign of law, we need to revise the municipal arrangements which were made without prevision of its advent. . . . . .

"We can imagine quarters and avenues in New York in which a uniform bounding row of sky-scrapers might be not merely inoffensive, but sublime. We might be able to say of those bounding buildings, in Paul Bourget's eloquent words, and with more justice than that with which he applied them to the sky-scrapers of Chicago:

> The simple force of need is such a principle of beauty, and these buildings so conspicuously manifest that need that in contemplating them you experience a singular emotion. The sketch appears here of a new kind of art, an art of democracy, made by the crowd and for the crowd, an art of science in which the certainty of natural laws gives to audacities in appearance the most unbridled the tranquillity of geometrical figures.

"We should not be Americans if we were not believers in our future and in our competency to amend the things that are amiss with us. Of these, the aggressiveness of sky-scrapers, tho so conspicuous, is not the most formidable."

WOMEN AND MUSIC.

THAT no woman has ever attained in the art of musical composition an eminence comparable with the best achievements of women in the sister arts of letters and painting is frequently a subject of comment. Now, thanks to the industry and erudition of a German, we have a systematic list of almost a thousand women who have published music of their own composition. An examination of this list, it appears, only serves to emphasize the fact that for not one of the names which it contains could a place be challenged on the roll of really great composers. An anonymous critic, in *Harper's Weekly* (August 8), writes:

"We have gone over Herr Ebel's list with scrupulous care and the keenest interest, and out of the 1,000 names, garnered from several centuries and many nationalities, we have abstracted those of a dozen women composers who have achieved a certain measure of recognition in the practise of their art: of the other 988—and Herr Ebel has listed the names only of those whose work is definitely known and recorded—fame and the living world know nothing. Here is an extraordinary, a fascinating problem: How comes it that during four centuries—from the time, roughly speaking, of Palestrina, to the present day—only twelve women have made their mark upon the history of creative music, and that not one even of these twelve has accomplished anything approaching first-rate excellence? The fact is, of course, indisputable; musical history has known no feminine Bach, or Wagner, or Schubert, nor even a feminine Dvoràk or Puccini. Women have wrought admirably, at times incomparably, in letters; and in painting they have worked to honorable ends: but what woman has written music that is to be mentioned in the same breath with the work of George Eliot, of Christina Rossetti, of the Brontés, of Rosa Bonheur, of Alice Meynell, and Fiona Macleod? Surely not Clara Schumann, nor Ingeborg von Bronsart, nor Augusta Holmés, nor the incorrigibly superficial Chaminade, nor Liza Lehmann, nor those accomplished and earnest Americans, Mrs. H. H. A. Beach and Miss Margaret Ruthven Lang—to name those among the most eminent who come first to mind. . . . . .

"One is finally, then, confronted with the question: Is woman incapable of great creative achievement in this most sensitive, pliant, and emotional of the arts—the art of all others in which, one would suppose, she ought most brilliantly to excel? Frankly, there is everything to warrant the conviction that she is. Mr. Havelock Ellis, a thoughtful and acute psychologist, indorses the view that Mr. G. P. Upton takes of the matter in his 'Woman and Music.' Conceding, says Mr. Upton, that music is the most intense and potent medium for the expression of the emotions, and that woman is emotional by nature, 'is it not one solution of the problem that woman does not musically reproduce them, because she herself is emotional by temperament and nature, and can not project herself outwardly? . . . The emotion is a part of herself, and is as natural to her as breathing. She lives in emotion, and acts from emotion; . . . but to treat emotions as if they were mathematics, to bind and measure and limit them within the rigid

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laws of harmony and counterpoint, and to express them with arbitrary signs, is a cold-blooded operation possible only to the sterner and more obdurate nature of man.' All of which, to our mind, is exceedingly convincing and explanatory. Mr. W. B. Yeats, who is as subtle in wisdom as he is accomplished in poetry, has written somewhere of what seems to him a typically feminine defect in women's practise of the arts: 'a flitting incoherence,' he calls it, 'a fitful dying out of the sense, as must needs be when life is the master and not the slave of the singer.' There is, we believe, the fatal disqualification: so long as woman's emotional relation to life is that of the slave rather than the master, so long will her creative work in that art which is preoccupied, above all things, with emotional utterance, be inferior and ineffectual."

LONG-DISTANCE EDUCATION.

INSTRUCTION by correspondence, as a method of popular education, had its beginning in this country as one of the numerous ramifications of the "Chautauqua idea," we are told in the editorial columns of the New York *Independent*, but is now admitted to some extent into the work of nearly all colleges. The improvement in the facilities of communication, the writer points out, is having a remarkable effect in extending the power of the teacher over an area and to numbers formerly thought impossible. President Harper, who has made correspondence work an important feature in many of the departments in the University of Chicago, is quoted as saying: "The work done by correspondence is even better than that done in the classrooms; students who come to us after a year of such work are better prepared than those who have taken it with us in the classrooms." The writer in *The Independent*, after stating what he considers the disadvantages and the advantages of this method of instruction, recognizes in the movement an opportunity for the colleges to reach a wider public and to exert a more vital influence upon the life and thought of the people. He writes:

"The disadvantages of non-resident study are many and manifest; such as the lack of libraries, laboratories, and museums, of personal contact with great men and of familiar intercourse with fellow students. The man who studies and works at the same time can give only the fag ends of his time and mental strength to books, and at the same time is handicapped in his daily work by competition with those who 'mean business' and nothing else. On account of these impediments study out of school can never be so effective as study in school, and that it actually accomplishes as much as it does must be because in certain kinds of work and with certain individuals the method has advantages of its own. One of these is that the young man who is studying in the same line as his work gets his knowledge, like his daily bread, when he can make best use of it. Consequently it is better assimilated than if he had acquired at one time a larger mass of information, and stored it up, more or less securely, for future use. We get more information from a dictionary when we look up a single word we want than when we read a page at a time. Every teacher knows that the best students are not those who take the study because it is prescribed, nor yet those who take it for the love of it, but those who, whether they like it or not, feel that they need it and must have it. That is why it often happens that a student who has been out a year in practical life does better work after his return than before he left. The student who is always asking why he should take this or that subject is an annoyance to his instructor, but he is not always the poorest in the class, nevertheless.

"The function of the student in college is necessarily absorption, rather than production. He is preparing, not accomplishing. Of course teachers correct as far as they can this one-sidedness of the educational process by requiring the students to do something, even tho it is of an artificial and non-productive character. Our elementary laboratories are imitation workshops, just as our gymnasiums are substitutes for the useful physical labor of which the students are deprived. Since the natural reward of work, which is the satisfaction of accomplishing something, is lacking in the schools, artificial aims and stimuli have to be contrived to take their place, and we have the extensive scholastic paraphernalia of grades, degrees, prizes, ranks, and honors existing largely for this purpose. Now in school, as out, there are minds which are prone to mistake the symbol for the reality, and to think that they are doing something when they are merely preparing to do something. In practical life only results count, but in the school the emphasis is necessarily laid on methods rather than results, so some students, as even some professors, come to consider methods as results, and graduate with the disease of chronic receptivity and motor incapacity, which it requires some years of rough knocks in 'the world' to cure. The colleges exert too little influence over the life and thought of the people, and they could, with advantage on both sides, touch a wider public than they do. It is their duty, then, to determine how this may be done without lowering the tone inside the colleges, or neglecting their primary duty toward their resident students. If the people can not get doctors, they will take quacks. It is a mistake to look, as some do, upon correspondence teaching, university extension, and the like as merely a dissipation, a degradation, and a dilution of knowledge. It is more correct to see in the movement an opportunity for the college spirit to do more toward shaping our national ideals than has been thought possible hitherto."

WHAT IS COMPARATIVE LITERATURE?

CHARLES MILLS GAYLEY, professor of English literature in the University of California, published, some ten years ago, a plea for the formation of a Society of Comparative Literature. At the same time he called attention to the fact that the work which such a society might perform had not been undertaken by any English or American organization, or by any periodical or series of publications in the English language. Very recently a *Journal of Comparative Literature* has come to birth in this country, but the society is yet to be founded. Meanwhile, in *The Atlantic Monthly* (July), Professor Gayley restates the reasons for such a society. He writes:

"I am of the opinion that the principles of literature and of criticism are not to be discovered in esthetic theory alone, but in a theory which both impels and is directed by scientific inquiry. No individual can gather from our many literatures the materials necessary for an induction to the characteristic of even one literary type; but an association, each member of which should devote himself to the study of a given type, species, movement, or theme, with which he was specially and at first hand familiar, might with some degree of adequacy prosecute a comparative investigation into the nature of literature, part by part. Thus, gradually, wherever the type or movement had existed, its quality and history might be observed. And in time, by systematization of results, scholarship might attain to the common, and probably some of the essential, characteristics of classified phenomena, to some of the laws actually governing the origin, growth, and differentiation of one and another of the component literary factors and kinds. A basis would correspondingly be laid for criticism not in the practise of one nationality or school, nor in esthetics of sporadic theory, otherwise interesting and profitable enough, but in the common qualities of literature, scientifically determined. To adopt, as universal, canons of criticism constructed upon particular premises—by Boileau or Vida, Puttenham, Sidney, or Corneille, or even Lessing and Aristotle—and to apply them to types, or varieties of type, movement, or theme, with which these masters were unacquainted, is illogical, and therefore unhistorical. And still, that is precisely what the world of literary dictators persists in doing. *Alle Theorie ist grau.* The principles of the drama can not be derived from a consideration of the Greek drama alone, nor of European drama, but of all drama, wherever found, European, Peruvian, Chinese; among aboriginal as well as among civilized peoples; and in all stages of its history. From such comparative formulation of results proceed the only trustworthy canons for that kind of composition; some of them general, some dependent upon conditions historically differenced. So also with the nature and laws of other types, movements or moods, forms or themes, and ultimately of literature as a unit. Our current esthetic canons of judgment, based upon psychological and speculative premises, that sometimes by accident fit the case, but more frequently upon historical inexperience, might thus be renovated and widened with the process of scientific knowledge."

Professor Gayley then proceeds in rather technical style to define

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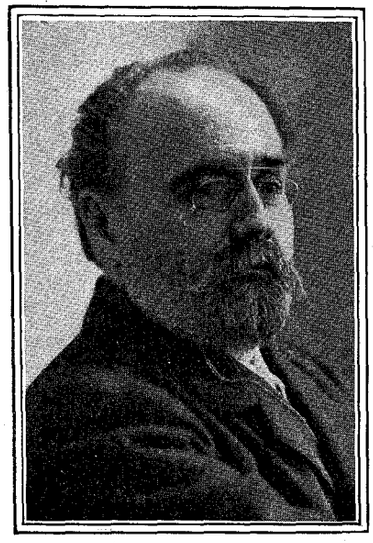
the term "comparative literature," a term which he admits to be a misnomer, altho one that has probably come to stay. What it is understood to imply, however, is the comparative method as applied to literature. "It is, in the first place," he tells us, "understood of a field of investigation—the literary relations existing between distinct nationalities; the study of international borrowings, imitations, adaptations." He quotes M. Texte to the effect that the nineteenth century has seen the national history of literature develop and establish itself; the task of the twentieth century will undoubtedly be to write the comparative history of those literatures. Professor Brandes, the great Danish critic, is also quoted as saying: "The comparative view possesses the double advantage of bringing foreign literature so near to us that we can assimilate it and of removing our own until we are enabled to see it in its true perspective." The working premise of the student of comparative literature, Professor Gayley tells us, is a belief in an essential, historical oneness of literature. He will regard literature as "a distinct and integral medium of thought, a common institutional expression of humanity; differentiated, to be sure, by the social conditions of the individual, by racial, historical, cultural, and linguistic influences, opportunities, and restrictions, but, irrespective of age or guise, prompted by the common needs and aspirations of man, sprung from common faculties, psychological and physiological, and obeying common laws of material and mode, of the individual and of social humanity." Thus it becomes clear that "to examine the phenomena of literature as a whole, to compare them, to inquire into the causes of them," is the task that comparative literature in the widest sense of the term sets itself.

HENRY JAMES.



EMILE ZOLA.

But Professor Gayley points out that the phrase may also be correctly used with a narrower application. "The historian who searches for origins or stages of development in a single literature may employ the comparative method as much as he who zigzags from literature to literature." Or, narrowed still further in its use, the term has been applied to that method of criticism which seeks to determine the peculiarities of an author by comparison with those of some other author sufficiently analogous. It is in the first and broader sense, however, that the term "comparative literature" is applied in the American universities. Professor Gayley writes further:

"The conception of literature as a unit is no longer hypothetical; the comparison of national histories has proved it. The idea of a process by evolution may be unproved; but that some process, as by permutation, must obtain is recognized. We no longer look upon the poet as inspired. Literature develops with the entity which produces it—the common social need and faculty of expression; and it varies according to *differentiæ* of racial, physiographic, and social conditions, and of the inherited or acquired characteristics of which the individual author is constituted. The science of its production must analyze its component factors and determine the laws by which they operate. By a constant factor are fixed the only possible molds or channels of expression, and, therefore, the integral and primary types, as, for instance, within the realm of poetry, the lyric, narrative, and dramatic. By the presence of other factors, both inconstant, these types are themselves liable to modification. I refer, of course, to environment, that is to say, to the antecedent and contemporary condition of thought, social tendency, and artistic fashion; and to the associational congeries called the author."

HENRY JAMES'S ESTIMATE OF ZOLA.

MR. HENRY JAMES calls attention, in the case of Émile Zola, to the "so marked and impressive anomaly of the adoption of the 'cheap' art by one of the stoutest minds and stoutest characters of our time." The "cheap" art, according to Mr. James, is the art of fiction. Yet he finds, in the story of Zola's achievement, evidence that fiction can still plead for itself on the score of its "pliancy and applicability." A curious contradiction stands forth, to his mind, in the fact that thirty years ago "a young man of extraordinary brain and indomitable purpose, wishing to give the measure of these endowments in a piece of work supremely solid, conceived and sat down to Les Rougon-Macquart rather than to an equal task in physics, mathematics, politics, economics." The Rougon-Macquart series Mr. James ranks as "one of the few most constructive achievements of our time." But what is the logic, he asks, of this strong head so deeply committing itself to the "equivocal form" of fiction? He finds the answer in the form's "huge freedom of adjustment to the temperament of the worker, which it carries, so to say, as no other vehicle can do." He points out that a scheme of fiction such as Zola conceived is capable of expressing fully and directly the whole man, and, "big as he may be, it can still be big enough for him without being false to its type." Mr. James continues (in *The Atlantic Monthly* for August):

"An intense vision of this truth must have been Zola's comfort from the earliest time—the years, immediately following the crash of the Empire, during which he settled himself to the tremendous task he had mapped out. No finer act of courage and confidence, I think, is recorded in the history of letters. The critic in sympathy with him returns again and again to the great wonder of it, in which something so strange is mixed with something so august. Entertained and carried out almost from the threshold of manhood, the high project, the work of a lifetime, announces beforehand its inevitable weakness, and yet speaks in the same voice for its admirable, its almost unimaginable, strength. The strength was in the young man's very person—in his character, his will, his passion, his fighting temper, his aggressive lips, his squared shoulders (when he 'sat up'), and overweening confidence; his weakness was in that inexperience of life from which he proposed not to suffer, from which he in fact suffered, on the surface, remarkably little, and from which he was never to suspect, I judge, that he had suffered at all. . . . . .

"Readers of my generation remember well the publication of 'La Conquête de Plassans' and the portent, indefinable but irresistible, after perusal of the volume, conveyed in the general rubric under which it was a first instalment, 'Natural and Social History of a Family under the Second Empire.' It loomed large, the announcement, from the first, and we were to learn promptly enough what a fund of life it masked. It was like the mouth of a cave with a sign-board hung above, or, better, still, perhaps like the big booth at

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a fair with the name of the show across the flapping canvas. One strange animal after another stepped forth into the light, each in its way a monster bristling and spotted, each a curiosity of that 'natural history' in the name of which we were addressed, tho it was doubtless not till the appearance of 'L'Assommoir' that the true type of the monstrous seemed to be reached. The enterprise, for those who had attention, was even at a distance impressive, and the nearer the critic gets to it retrospectively, the more so it becomes. The pyramid had been planned and the site staked out, but the young builder stood there, in his sturdy strength, with no equipment save his two hands and, as we may say, his wheelbarrow and his trowel. His pile of material—of stone, brick, and rubble, or whatever—was of the smallest, but that he apparently felt as the least of his difficulties. Poor, uninstructed, unacquainted, unintroduced, he set up his subject wholly from the outside, proposing to himself, wonderfully, to get into it, into its depths, as he went.

"If we imagine him asking himself what he knew of the 'social' life of the Second Empire to start with, we imagine him also answering in all honesty: 'I have my eyes and my ears—I have all my senses: I have what I've seen and heard, what I've smelled and tasted and touched. And then I've my curiosity and my pertinacity; I've libraries, books, newspapers, witnesses, the material, from step to step, of an *enquête*. And then I've my genius—that is, my imagination, my sensibility to life. Lastly, I've my method, and that will be half the battle. Best of all, perhaps even, I've an incomparable absence of doubts.' . . . . . .

"If we remember that his design was nothing if not architectural, that a 'majestic whole,' a great balanced façade, with all its orders and parts, that a unity of effect, in fine, was before him from the first, his notion of picking up his bricks as he proceeded becomes, in operation, heroic. It is not in the least as a record of failure for him that I note this particular fact of the growth of the long series as the liveliest interest, on the whole, it has to offer. 'I don't know my subject, but I must live into it; I don't know life, but I must learn it as I work'—that attitude and program represent, to my sense, a drama more intense on the worker's own part than any of the dramas he was to invent and put before us.

"It was the fortune, it was in a manner the doom, of Les Rougon-Macquart to deal with things almost always in gregarious form, to be a picture of *numbers*, of classes, crowds, confusions, movements, industries. . . . It produces the effect of a mass of imagery in which shades are sacrificed, the effect of character and passion in the lump or by the ton. The fullest, the most characteristic episodes affect us like a sounding chorus or procession, as with a hubbub of voices and a multitudinous tread of feet."

From his narrow experience of life, from the disproportion between his scheme and his material, Mr. James points out, resulted in part Zola's sense for crowds and processions, for the gross and the general. He was compelled, we are told, to make breadth and energy supply the place of penetration. "He rested to his utmost on his documents, devoured and assimilated them, made them yield him extraordinary appearances of life." To quote further on the subject of his method and its limitations:

"His general subject, in the last analysis, was the nature of man; in dealing with which he took up, obviously, the harp of most numerous strings. His business was to make these strings sound true, and there were none that he didn't, so far as his general economy permitted, persistently try. What happened then was that many—say, about half, and these the most silvered, the most golden—refused to give out their music. They would only sound false, since (as with all his earnestness he must have felt) he could command them, through want of skill, of practise, of ear, to none of the right felicity. What, therefore, was more natural than that, still splendidly bent on producing his illusion, he should throw himself on the strings he *could* thump with effect, and should work them, as our phrase is, for all they were worth? The nature of man, he had plentiful warrant for holding, is an extraordinary mixture, but the great thing was to represent a sufficient part of it to show that it was, solidly palpably, commonly, the nature. With this preoccupation he fell into extravagance—there was so much, obviously, to encourage him. The coarser side of his subject, based on the community of all the instincts, was, for instance, the more practicable side, a sphere the vision of which required but the general human, scarcely more than the plain physical, initiation, and dispensed thereby, conveniently enough, with special introductions or revelations. A free entry into the sphere was undoubtedly compatible with a youthful career as hampered, right and left, even as Zola's own."

Zola's lack of taste, Mr. James states, altho hurtful to those parts of his work dealing with romantic or poetic elements, was elsewhere "positively to operate as one of his greatest felicities." The critic describes Zola's work at its best as exercising over the reader "a measure of coercion, a spell without a charm." He writes:

"It is a singular sight enough, that of a producer of illusions whose interest, for us, is so independent of our pleasure, or at least of our complacency—who touches us, deeply, even while he most 'puts us off,' who makes us care for his ugliness and yet himself pitilessly (pitilessly, that is, for *us*) plays with it, who fills us with a sense of the rich which is, none the less, never the rare. . . . . .

"Painters, of great schools, often of great talent, have responded, liberally, on canvas, to the appeal of ugly things, of Spanish beggars, squalid and dusty-footed, of martyred saints, or other convulsed sufferers, tortured and bleeding, of boors and louts soaking a Dutch proboscis in perpetual beer; but we had never before had to reckon with so literary a treatment of the vulgar."

Mr. James concludes with the statement that "if subjects of the private and intimate order gave him [Zola] inevitably 'away,' they yet left him the great distinction that the more he could be promiscuous and collective, the more even he could be common, the more he could strike us as penetrating and true."

NOTES.

A NEW periodical publication enters the field this month with the title *The Public Library Monthly*. It is an illustrated magazine, "devoted to libraries, books and their makers," and its avowed aim is "to bring the public into close relation with the public library as it at the moment exists." The magazine is published by the American Architect Company, Boston, Mass.

THE recent appearance on the London book-market of a three-penny edition of FitzGerald's translation of Omar Khayyám has caused *The Daily Mail* to regret the days "when mischievous books were publicly burned by the common hangman." According to the same journal, the book is "inimical to public morals, its philosophy is mischievous and depressing, and if followed to its logical end would overwhelm the fabric of society in a flood of sensuality." Omar himself is spoken of as "this crapulous winebibber, this blasphemous old toper."

SOME interest attaches to the term of literary copyright as fixed in different countries. In the United States, copyright is granted for twenty-eight years, with the right of extension for fourteen more, making a maximum term of forty-two years. In Great Britain it is granted for the period of the author's life and for seven years after his death; or for not less than forty-two years in any event. In France, Germany, Austria, and Switzerland, the copyright holds for thirty years after the author's death. In Russia, Norway, Belgium, Ecuador, and Peru, a book can be protected during the author's life and for fifty years after. Mexico, Guatemala, and Venezuela grant copyright in perpetuity.

A STRIKING feature of the theatrical announcements for next season is the unusual amount of Shakespearian drama promised. Of special interest is the statement that Mr. E. H. Sothern and Miss Julia Marlowe are to appear together in the interpretation of the world's greatest dramatist. Three actresses, Miss Viola Allen, Miss Grace George, and Miss Marie Wainwright promise us "Viola" in "Twelfth Night," and Miss Crossman will appear in "As You Like It." Mr. Nat Goodwin, we are told, has turned his attention to "A Midsummer's Night's Dream." Says the Philadelphia *Press*: "A program like this for next winter and the following season is little less than a popular revolution. It marks one of those reactions which periodically return Shakespeare to a stage where his chief foes are the leisured and advantaged classes. He always fills the galleries. It is the boxes and parquet, the theater party and 'society,' which neglect him."

THERE has been a flutter of aggrieved protest in the press of this country over a statement made in an English court by Mr. David Bispham, the famous barytone, whose home was once Philadelphia. Mr. Bispham stated that he now had his domicile in England, because it would be "professional suicide" to reside in the United States, this country not being "a musical center." The Philadelphia *Record* finds consolation by looking into the future: "In spite of all present drawbacks, it is the mature opinion of musicians here and abroad that the future of music and of musicians lies in America. A professor at the Leipsic Conservatory, who spent some time here, said there was one superlative advantage in the New World—its freedom from the tyranny of tradition. There are cast-iron rules in every European center—a belief that the principles of music and the art of instruction are exactly as promulgated long ago by certain revered teachers, and that it is sacrilegious for any one to suggest the least departure from tradition. Teachers of originality are suppressed. No conscientious teacher can enter into his work with enthusiasm in such circumstances, and America will in time become the asylum of the world's greatest musicians."

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SCIENCE AND INVENTION.

THE BREAK-UP OF THE UNIVERSE.

THAT the matter of which the universe is composed may be disintegrating before our eyes—breaking up, as the ice in a lake breaks up on a warm spring day—is something that never occurred to the most daring cosmic speculator until the recent remarkable discoveries connected with radium. Now that we know that this substance appears to throw off "a continuous shower of minute particles, we hear hypotheses of this kind on all sides. That matter is disintegrating appears to Prof. Oliver Lodge to be very probable, altho it may be that the disintegrated particles recombine somewhere and so keep the sum-total steady. In a recent lecture on the subject at Oxford, printed in *The Popular Science Monthly* (August), he says, after an account of the strange behavior of radium:

"Assuming the truth of this strange string of laboratory facts, we appear to be face to face with a phenomenon quite new in the history of the world. No one has hitherto observed the transition from one form of matter to another: tho throughout the Middle Ages such a transmutation was looked for. The transmutation of elements has been suspected in modern times on evidence vaguely deducible by skilled observers from the spectroscopic details of solar and stellar appearances. . . . . All this was speculation; but here in radioactive matter the process appears to be going on before our eyes."

Professor Lodge believes that this break-up of the atoms confirms his idea that matter is composed of concentrated, suitably moving electric charges, for one of the theoretical consequences of such a hypothesis is just such change and dissolution as we seem to have here. He goes on to say:

"It looks as if the massive and extremely complex atoms of a radioactive substance were liable to get into an unstable condition, probably reaching this condition whenever any part of it attempts, or is urged, to move with the velocity of light. . . . Out of the whole multitude of atoms, even of the atoms of a conspicuously radioactive substance, it is probable that only a very few get into this unstable or critical condition at any one time; perhaps not more than one in a million million; nevertheless, just as occasional tho rare encounters take place in the heavens, followed by the blaze of a new and temporary star, so, tho probably not by the same mechanism, here and there a few out of the billions of atoms in any perceptible speck of radium arrive in due time at the unstable condition and break down into something else, with energetic radioactivity during the sudden collapsing process. . . . . .

"The hypothesis concerning radioactivity which is now in the field, then, is that a very small number, an almost infinitesimal proportion, of the atoms are constantly breaking up; throwing away a small portion, say, one per cent. of themselves, with immense violence, at about one-tenth of the speed of light; the remainder constitute a slightly different substance, which, however, is still extremely unstable, and, therefore, radioactive, going through its stages with much greater rapidity than the radium itself, because practically the whole of it is in the unstable condition, and so giving rise to fresh and fresh products of its own decay, till a comparatively stable state is reached, or till the process passes beyond our means of detection. . . . . .

"There is absolutely no ground for the popular and gratuitous surmise that it [radium] emits energy without loss or waste of any kind, and that it is competent to go on forever. The idea, at one time irresponsibly mooted, that it contradicted the principle of the conservation of energy, and was troubling physicists with the idea that they must overhaul their theories—a thing which they ought always to be delighted to do on good evidence—this idea was a gratuitous absurdity and never had the slightest foundation. . . . It is reasonable to suppose, however, that radium and the other like substances are drawing upon their own stores of internal atomic energy, and thereby gradually disintegrating and falling into other, and ultimately into more stable, forms of matter.

"Not that it is to be supposed that even these are finally and absolutely stable: these, too, are subject to radiation loss, and so must be liable to decay; but at a vastly slower rate, perhaps not more than a few hundred atoms changing and diffusing away each second—a process utterly imperceptible to the most delicate weighing until after the lapse of millions of years; so that for all practical purposes, and for times such as are dealt with in comic history, they are permanent, even as the solar system and stellar aggregates appear to us to be permanent. Yet we know that all these systems are in reality transitory, as terrestrial structures like the pyramids or as the mountains and the continents themselves are transitory: of all these things it may be said that in any given form they have their day and cease to be. But whereas geological and astronomical configurations pass through their phases in a time to be reckoned in millions of years, the active life of a solar system covering perhaps no very long period, it is probable that the changes we have begun to suspect in the foundation-stones of the universe, the more stable elemental atoms themselves, must require a period to be expressed only by millions of millions of centuries. For in such a time as this, at the rate of a hundred atoms per second, a bare kilogram—a couple of pounds only—of matter, even of heavy matter, would have drifted away; not so much indeed—a couple of ounces more likely. And yet this period is a million times the estimated age of the earth."

Here, of course, Professor Lodge is going further and further into mere speculation, but the suggestion is unavoidable that the whole universe of matter may thus be a transient phenomenon—if the word may be applied to changes of such enormously long periods. He goes on to say:

"Whether the total amount of matter in the universe is constant likewise, as much disappearing at one end by resolution into electrons as is formed at the other end by their aggregating together, is at present quite unknown; and indeed it is clear that we have now become far immersed in the region of speculation. Nevertheless, it is speculation not of an illegitimate character, for it is very consistent with all that we know about the rest of the material universe. . . . All we have to do is to ascertain by careful and patient investigation what really happens; and my experience has led me to feel sure of this, that whatever hypotheses and speculations we may frame, we can not exceed the reality in genuine wonder; and I believe that the simplicity and beauty of the truth concerning even the material universe, when we know it, will be such as to elicit feeling of reverent awe and adoration."

STRENGTH OF MEN AND OF INSECTS.

AT intervals articles appear in the papers recounting the prodigious strength of insects. Their muscular force is usually compared with their size by stating, for example, that a flea can leap so many times its own length and that an ant can drag so many times its own weight. Then it is stated that man, if he were strong in the same proportion, could jump so many rods or lift so many tons. These comparisons, we are told by M. Leo Robida in *La Nature* (July 11), are misleading, to say the least. He writes:

"It is interesting to consider, solely from a mechanical point of view, these comparisons between the muscular strength of man and that of insects. Strictly from this standpoint, they are by no means extraordinary and are only one of the forms of what has been called 'the conflict of squares and cubes.' The law is well known—volumes decrease in more rapid ratio than surfaces.

"The force that a muscle can exert depends on its section, that is to say, on a surface; altho its capacity for doing work depends on its volume, as is logical. Here is the explanation of the astonishing strength of insects. Take an example: Compare two muscles, that of a man and that of an insect, the latter 100 times shorter than the former. It is evident that the insect's muscle will be 1,000,000 times lighter than the man's, while its section, and consequently the force that it can exert, will be only 10,000 times less. The conclusion is that, since a man can lift 100 kilograms [62 pounds], the insect will lift 10,000 times less or 10 grams [154 grains], and we shall have the impressive spectacle of an insect lifting more than 100 times its own weight. In fact, the smaller the insect is, the more it will astonish us by an appearance of extraordinary strength.

"But it is no longer the same if we examine the mechanical work effected. The muscle of the insect supposed above to be $\frac{1}{100}$ of

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a man's in linear dimensions, furnishes, when it contracts, a force 10,000 times less than the human muscle, exerted through a space 100 times smaller; the work produced will be thus 1,000,000 times smaller, which reestablishes the proportion between weight and strength.

"Moreover, it seems (just as with machines, where the smaller are proportionally weaker) as if the insect's muscle, instead of surpassing man's infinitely, is notably inferior to it in quality. Take the flea's jump, for instance. By its muscular contraction it gives to its mass a movement capable of raising it 30 centimeters [12 inches]; man can raise his own weight to 1.5 meters [about 5 feet] by leaping. For equal weight, the human muscle thus furnishes five times more work than that of the flea in a single contraction, since the work is the product of the weight by the height to which it is raised."—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

LUNAR PHOTOGRAPHY AND THE LUNAR ATMOSPHERE.

THAT the moon may have an atmosphere has always been admitted by astronomers, altho most of them have maintained that this atmosphere must be so slight as not to count. Recent observations that have caused much discussion bring up the question again in an interesting form. In a review of recent astronomy in *Science Illustrée*, M. W. de Fonville states his belief that we are approaching the time when this and similar problems may be solved by photography. Of recent lunar photographs, taken in France by M. Loewy, an expert in this art, he says:

"The photographs that he has collected are the best yet obtained; they surpass greatly those that the author has previously published, and yet these latter were superior to anything that has appeared before their time. The astronomer who compares successive lunar photographs taken at different times finds himself unfortunately in a very difficult situation. The same regions are illuminated differently. Details do not appear on one photograph because they have not been sufficiently lighted. Those that do appear are perhaps different on the two pictures because of variations in the light.

"But in spite of these obstacles the power of definition increases from year to year. Not only does the sensitiveness of the film increase, but the time of exposure diminishes. The published photographs are not direct reproductions of the originals. They are enlarged, so that the final product depends on the success of a second exposure, and the perfection with which this is made limits the possible size of the picture.

"Thus we approach, slowly but surely, the time when we can discern clearly any object situated on the lunar surface and discuss its nature scientifically.

"We have already reached the point where it may be affirmed definitely that there are on the moon's surface none of the cities which Schrotter, that ingenious and sympathetic *savant*, placed there. But what we may perhaps discover in the near future—and this may be the starting-point of lunar natural history—is the presence of changes of tint produced by the development of a peculiar species of vegetation. This is the form under which the presence of life on our satellite would begin to show itself, and, in fact, this manifestation would appear to have already taken place.

"In fact, if we are to believe Mr. E. Pickering, he has been able to demonstrate several changes of this kind with the specially powerful instrument that he is using at Arequita, Peru, near the equator. . . . . ."

The desire to know more of the moon's surface, M. de Fonville remarks, is one of humanity's oldest passions. Literature abounds in more or less fanciful "trips to the moon," and also in more serious attempts to describe the features of our satellite. One of the most remarkable of these—the so-called "Kepler's dream," written originally in Latin by one of the greatest of the world's astronomers—has just been republished in a German translation. Alluding to it, M. de Fonville goes on to say:

"Altho in such matters we must use the greatest circumspection, it is impossible not to notice that we have at our disposal powerful elements of interpretation that Kepler could not even suspect. . .

"To Kepler we owe the remark that all the water found on the lunar surface must be in the form of ice during the lunar night, which lasts for a half-lunation, or 354 hours. But the illustrious astronomer doubtless divined only half of the truth.

"The attractive force of the moon at its surface and on its equator being only seventeen hundredths of the earth's, gravitating bodies drawn toward it will fall only 1.57 meters [a little over 5 feet] in the first second. It is thus probable that the density of the lunar atmosphere exerts at most a pressure of 13 centimeters of mercury, or less than that at 10 kilometers [6.2 miles] above the earth's surface. The maximum of cold at this height is below −50° C. [−112° F.]. It is probable that the cold is so intense that the air itself is transformed into snow, and that it is with this substance and not only with frozen water that the lunar landscapes are covered when the sun begins to warm them again. Under the beneficent influence of its rays, which with us sustain life continuously, the lunar landscape begins to flourish again.

"A circumstance hitherto unexplained, on which Mr. Pickering comments in his notes of his observations at Arequita, seems to confirm this idea, which singularly enough no one ever thought of before.

"It has sometimes been thought that the occultations of stars by the moon's disk sometimes indicate the presence of an atmosphere dense enough to retard their disappearance and hasten their reappearance; but these phenomena invariably appear in parts of the Moon's edge that have been for some time subjected to the influence of the sun's rays, where the frozen air must have resumed its gaseous form.

"It should be noted that if the earth's whole atmosphere were liquefied by cold, the ocean of liquid air would be only about 11 meters [36 feet] deep. If a similar phenomenon should take place on the moon, the thickness would not be more than 2 meters [6½ feet]. At the distance that separates the earth from the moon, so small a change could be observed on our satellite only with the greatest difficulty."—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

HAVE ANIMALS ALTERED IN HISTORIC TIME?

ONE of the most potent arguments against all phases of development theory has always been the permanence of our best-known species—the dog, the cat, the ox, etc. And the mummified specimens of these animals found in Egyptian tombs have often been appealed to as witnesses of this contention. It is evident that in such mummies we have a unique opportunity to study the fauna of thousands of years ago, yet it would seem that this has not been done systematically until recent years. Messrs. Lortet and Gaillard, two French zoologists who have been given unusually full opportunities for this study, have recently described their investigations in a book entitled "The Mummified Fauna of Ancient Egypt" [Lyons, France, 1903]. The writers conclude that Egyptian animals have not varied in seven thousand years, but they do not regard this fact as invalidating the theory of evolution. Their attitude may be seen from a review of their book, published in the *Revue Scientifique*, July 11. Says the reviewer:

"The occasion and the circumstance are both unique; we shall not find them elsewhere. Nowhere else have we the authentic dated remains that Egypt furnishes us. Nowhere have we collections of animals that lived five or six thousand years ago, which we can compare with the same species living in the same region. The problem is to see whether the ancient fauna and the modern are the same; whether the species have altered or not in the course of five or six thousand years. Long ago M. Lortet recognized the interest of this problem, but it was not until quite recently that, thanks to the assistance of M. Maspero, he was able to secure the mummies necessary for the comparison. Having procured them, he has examined them, and his work consists of the description and comparison of the remains that have been entrusted to him.

"The conclusion that he has reached from this comparison is that there has been no transformation. There is nothing in this fact contrary to the doctrine of evolution. For, in order that species may be changed, their environment must be modified; and the Egyptian environment has been remarkably constant during the period in question. We should, therefore, not be surprised that the fauna has preserved its characteristics and remains fixed; that

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there are still dogs, cats, rats, bulls, antelopes, gazelles, sheep, and also falcons, eagles, owls, etc.

"Among the numerous facts noted by Messrs. Lortet and Gaillard there is much that is very interesting. Thus the Egyptian bas-reliefs show us two species of bulls, one with long horns, the other with short ones. Now, among the mummies we find only the long-horned variety. This species is the African zebu, which still exists in great herds on the plains of the upper Nile. But where did the short-horned species come from? It was imported from Syria after epidemics that destroyed the long-horned race; and when, more recently, the short-horned species was destroyed in its turn, the Egyptian farmers and breeders sought in the Sudan individuals of the ancient race and installed them anew in the valley of the lower Nile.

"In like manner, two forms of sheep are represented on the ancient monuments of Egypt. Now we find from the investigations of Messrs. Lortet and Gaillard that one of them was domesticated as early as the neolithic period, and was still living in the earliest Pharaonic times; this was not a goat, nor a descendant of the mouflon [or long-horned wild sheep], as has been supposed. The other species seems to have been introduced into Egypt under the twelfth dynasty, 435. But both are purely African. And it seems evident that zoology is less and less favorable to the idea of the Asiastic origin of the Egyptian races of animals. They came, and still come, from Africa. And whether we have to do with birds, fishes, mammals, or reptiles, we shall have no doubt, after reading the fine works of Messrs. Lortet and Gaillard, regarding the proper conclusion to adopt. It is that in the Egyptian environment, very uniform, very constant, very stable, animals have not varied for five, six, and, perhaps, seven thousand years."—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

STORAGE-BATTERIES ON ELECTRIC ROADS.

THE use of storage-batteries to furnish the entire motive power for an electric road has not been successful. On lines where they have been used, notably on Thirty-fourth Street, in New York, the conducting wire or bar, with trolley or sliding-contact, is taking their place. But as an adjunct to the usual source of power and a means for saving up a surplus for use when it is needed they are gaining in popularity. Of this use Howard S. Knowlton says in *The Engineering Magazine* (August):

"Electric railways are noted for the enormous momentary demands for power which their generating-stations sustain. Generally the ratio of this instantaneous power output to the average load or power demand is much greater on a small system than in the case of a large one. The causes of these fluctuations are found in the constant starting and stopping of cars, changes in speeds, grades, curves, conditions of track and roadbed, and, to some extent, the varying numbers of passengers carried. Far less power is required to run a heavy car at a speed of thirty or forty miles per hour on the level than to accelerate it to such a speed in starting from a standstill. . . . Each car on a street-railway may easily draw from three to six times its normal average current from the power-station when accelerating. . . . The electric railway thus offers an attractive field for energy-storage, in order to avoid the installation of current-generating machinery and transmission-apparatus whose supplying capacity is greatly in excess of the average demands of the cars. Here the storage-battery rises to the occasion, and, when financial conditions are favorable, it absorbs and gives out energy with signal success, in the operation of the system.

"The popular impression is to the effcet that such a battery stores up electricity, and that the bottled-up fluid is held somehow under pressure, to be released on demand like highly charged mineral water. The principle of the storage-battery is quite different from this, as the entire action is chemical, fundamentally. . . . . .

"'Charging' a storage-battery simply means passing a continuous electric current through it from some outside source of supply, as a railway or lighting generator, and thereby causing certain chemical actions to take place. The energy of the current is thus stored up as chemical changes and recombinations, or, in other words, it is transformed into potential chemical energy.

"'Discharging' a battery is naturally the reverse of the process just indicated. The battery is connected to a railway, lighting, or general power circuit, and it at once begins to deliver current, generated by the reversed chemical actions which begin to take place as soon as opportunity is given for a current to flow. Back goes the battery toward its original uncharged condition, and the cycle may be repeated over and over again, always with the same resulting chemical actions caused by, and then causing, the electric current. At each discharge there is an exceedingly slight deterioration of the active material on the positive plates, so that in a few years, more or less, these plates must be renewed, and are said to be 'worn out.' It is unnecessary to charge or discharge a battery entirely before reversing the process, and it may be drawn upon for electrical energy within the limits of its capacity just as freely as one would draw water from a reservoir. . . . . ."

As applied to electric-railway systems, therefore, the storage-battery does its work by absorbing the violent fluctuations in current demand which would otherwise be thrown upon the generating apparatus and transmission system. Through its power to charge or discharge at any point within its working range, the battery absorbs energy when the demand for it is light, and gives it out when the severe momentary pulls of the cars would burden unduly the power-stations, substations, and distributing-circuits. The action resembles that of an elastic spring in taking up shocks. But there is another great use for storage-batteries in electric-railway work; namely, on the line, at a distance from power-house or substation. Says Mr. Knowlton:

"Efficient service by the cars depends mainly upon their receiving current at the highest feasible pressure or voltage. The drop in line pressure as one recedes from the power-house is often a very serious matter, and as the speed of the car-motors at three hundred volts is about half the speed at six hundred, it is evidently of the highest importance to maintain as high a voltage as is possible all along the distant line, from the power-station to the car farthest away from it.

"This can be done in several ways, the two most common being to put up heavier feed-wire and thus add more copper-conducting power to the system, or to install a storage-battery out on the line, with the addition of little or no copper, and sometimes the removal of a portion of the wire already in service. The choice between the copper and the battery is always a problem in dollars and cents, as is the selection of a battery for station service, both demanding a skilled knowledge of electrical finance. . . . . .

"The future of the railway storage-battery is difficult to predict, at present. If the progress of science develops a form of battery which is far lighter and somewhat more efficient than modern types, there is no doubt that a revolution will be worked in methods of applying electricity to railway service. It would be a wonderful step forward to sweep away with one brilliant stroke of invention or discovery all the present complicated and expensive transmitting-wires, transforming and distributing devices, which render an electric-railway system a labyrinth of intricacy at best. The marvelous triumphs in the study and manufacture of high-powered explosives lead us to hope that some day electrical energy may be sold freely in concentrated battery cartridges, and applied to the propulsion of trains with an efficiency hitherto undreamed. Certain it is that the present applications of batteries to electric railway work will find a constantly increasing field of usefulness, as long as continuous-current motors are employed in driving cars, and with many able inventive minds bent upon the battery problem, there is at least ground for hope that a brilliant future may some time be realized in the scientific storage of electrical energy."

Portland Cement from Slag.—Portland cement has been made from blast-furnace slag for several years in Germany, Luxemburg, and Belgium, and the quality is said to be most satisfactory. *The Scientific American* now tells us that negotiations are being carried on with a view to the introduction of the slag-cement industry in England, Austria, and France. Says this paper:

"In some respects a blast-works has a considerable advantage over other Portland-cement factories because the motive power for the cement-works can be supplied by a blast-furnace gas-motor with electric transmission, the rubble or waste coke from the blast-furnaces can be utilized in the cement-kiln, and the principal raw

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materials—namely, the granulated slag and the limestone—are close at hand. Besides, there are other minor advantages. Portland-slag cement has also some advantages over natural Portland cement; for, while the yield from the raw materials when the former is used is about 80 per cent., the yield when the ordinary raw materials are used is seldom more than 60 per cent. As the cost of production per ton of raw materials is nearly equal in both cases, a saving of about 20 per cent. in fuel, labor, etc., is effected in the case of slag cement. Besides this, Portland-slag cement is more trustworthy and more regular, and its manufacture can be more easily controlled than that of the so-called natural Portland cement, because the principal raw material—namely, the blast-furnace slag—is, as a rule, a regular product whose chemical composition is easily controlled; consequently, any alterations which are liable to take place are known beforehand and precautions can accordingly be taken in time. This is not the case when the natural raw materials are used. Some recent tests with Portland cement from blast-furnace slag, made in the municipal laboratory at Vienna, showed that mortar composed of 3 parts of sand with 1 part of this cement gave the following results:

"1. After seven days' hardening. Tensile strength, 383 pounds per square inch; strength of compression, 3,880 pounds per square inch.

"2. After twenty-eight days' hardening. Tensile strength, 551 pounds per square inch; strength of compression, 5,411 pounds per square inch."

AN ENEMY OF THE SPONGE-FISHERS.

THAT sponge-fishers are subject to a special malady which may have serious results is asserted by Dr. Skevos Zervos, a Greek physician, in *La Semaine Médicale* (Paris). This is due, he says, to a small parasite that lives on the sponge, which, coming into contact with the naked bodies of the fishers, poisons them severely. Says a writer in the *Revue Scientifique* (July 11), reviewing the article by Dr. Zervos:

"Near the root of some sponges, or rarely on their surface, lives an Actinium, a small cœlenterate. This parasite is found in abundance when the sponge develops in the mud or amid seaweed. It is found at a depth varying from 23 to 45 meters [82 to 147 feet]. It measures in length 1 to 4 centimeters [½ to 1½ inches], . . . and secretes from pores spread over its surface a very poisonous viscous substance. This substance, brought in contact with the diver's body, provokes symptoms more or less serious, according to the quality and quantity of the venom, whose action is also considerably modified not only by the nature of the bottom where the Actinium lives, but also by the season of the year. Among professional fishers it is averred that in the month of August the Actinium, which they call 'the worm' (*skoliki*), is particularly redoubtable.

"In man the first symptoms after contact with the cœlenterate are nausea and intense burning; . . . then the skin sloughs off, leaving a deep wound with abundant suppuration. . . . . .

"Taken internally, the Actinium has toxic properties that the sponge-fishers know well, for they take the parasite in a dried state from the coast of Africa and use it to poison domestic animals. For this purpose the Actinium is reduced to small bits and placed in bread or meat that is given to the animal to eat. The animal dies in convulsions at the end of a few minutes.

"M. Zervos has not studied the venom chemically, but . . . M. Chas. Richet has isolated it from the tentacles of the creature, where alone it is contained, and by whose means these animals paralyze the fish that they desire to make their prey. It is an extremely active principle, containing two distinct poisons that have been dissociated and studied separately. One determines intense congestion, leading to hemorrhage; M. Richet calls this 'congestion.' The other, which he has named 'thalassin,' gives rise to violent irritation. Richet has obtained this latter poison pure, in the shape of crystals; and this is interesting because it is the first toxin that has been isolated in crystalline form."—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

The Best Surgical Steel.—That no country except England has yet succeeded in producing the finest steel for surgical instruments is asserted by a New York daily on the authority of a Brooklyn instrument-maker. Says this journal:

"According to this specialist, American-made steel has not yet reached a point of perfection that makes it available for a superior class of work. 'Surgical steel can be wrought and bought only in England,' he said. 'The famous surgeons of Berlin and Vienna must send to England for their instruments. In modern surgery, where life or death depends absolutely upon the reliability of the instrument to do exactly the work that the operator expects of it, no surgeon will take chances with knife, scissors, or forceps that he can not depend upon as absolutely as he can depend upon his own nerve."

On this *The American Machinist*, which quotes what has been given above, comments as follows:

"Now this, as any steel man or experienced steel user knows, means simply that this instrument-maker, who is probably an old man, has never used any other than a certain brand of English steel. It is of course good steel, and he has acquired the notion that no other is, or can be, as good without ever having taken the least trouble to find out whether or not his notion is correct. We believe that steel that is just as good as English for surgical instruments is made here, in Austria, in Sweden, in France, and probably in Germany as well. Usually an old expert worker of the kind alluded to has had an exceedingly narrow experience in the use of steels."

The Cost of Liquid Fuel.—Is oil a cheaper fuel than coal? The answer to this question, says A. L. Williston in *The Engineering Magazine* (July), depends entirely on locality, for in different localities the relative prices of oil and coal vary widely. Says the writer:

"Let us make the comparison, first, for a large power plant in New York city with anthracite buckwheat coal at $2.85 per ton of 2,000 pounds in the coal-pocket, and reduced oil at 3½ cents per gallon delivered; and second, for a similar plant in California, New Orleans, or in Texas, with inferior coal at $5.25 per ton in the coal-pocket and oil at 55 cents per barrel, delivered.

FIRST: NEW YORK CITY.

Coal.		*Oil Burning.*	
One ton of coal	$2.85	3.6 barrels of oil at $1.47	$5.29
Firing coal, per ton	.20	Steam for burners	.14
Removal of ashes	.18	Additional repairs	.05
	$3.23		$5.48

Increase in cost with oil burning, 69 per cent.

SECOND: CALIFORNIA, NEW ORLEANS, AND TEXAS.

Coal.		*Oil.*	
One ton of coal	$5.25	2.55 barrels of oil at 55 cents	$1.40
Firing coal, per ton	.20	Steam for burners	.14
Removal of ashes	.18	Additional repairs	.05
	$5.63		$1.59

Saving in cost with oil burning, 72 per cent.

"Between these limits—which by the way are not extreme—are many cases where the increase in cost will not be so much as 69 per cent. or the saving from oil burning will be less than 72 per cent., and at some points in between we shall find places where there will be no difference in cost whatsoever. The two illustrations will, however, serve to show how great may be the saving from the use of oil in certain places and how impossible is its use in many others."

"THE German papers have recently been circulating the report, and it has even gained currency in the English press," says *The Scientific American Supplement*, "that the locomotives which have been purchased in America by the Bavarian state railways within the last three years had proven unsatisfactory, and that their durability had been called into question. In these reports it is also asserted that experts had declared that the American locomotives could only last at best from eight to ten years, while the locomotives manufactured in Bavaria had stood service for thirty years, and that for these reasons, as well as because of frequent necessary repairs, the further use of American locomotives had been abandoned. From official sources the information is obtained that these reports are unauthorized and wholly groundless. The facts are that the locomotives which had been bought in order to study the American system of locomotive building have proven, because of their simplicity, their originality of construction, and their remarkable locomotion for fast and freight-trains, most acceptable, especially as to durability and efficiency, and that up to this time nothing has been discovered to warrant a statement that, with the same care bestowed upon them as upon the Bavarian locomotives, the American locomotives would prove less durable than those built here. Indeed, many of the parts of construction have been found so simple and practical that they will be adopted in the construction of Bavarian locomotives."

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THE RELIGIOUS WORLD.

ROMAN CATHOLIC ESTIMATES OF THE NEW POPE.

"THE new Pope is beloved by all Catholics, esteemed by the Italian Government, and respected by everybody. He is man of supreme practical sense, and he is altogether a splendid choice for the Pontiff." These words of Marion Crawford's (in a cable despatch to the New York *American*) seem to express the universal opinion of Roman Catholics in regard to the election of Cardinal Sarto as Pope. Cardinal Gibbons, when interviewed in Rome by *The American's* representative, voiced the same sentiments:

"We have made a splendid Pope. He is a most amiable Pope. We all love him, and the whole world will love him when it knows him. . . . The interests of the Church in America are sure to be watched with jealous care by his paternal eye. He was one of the cardinals who took the most active interest in the social movement. The result is, I am informed, that within the patriarchate of Venice the social principles laid down by Leo XIII. have had wonderful development. What could be more hopeful for us in America, great working people that we are?"

The Boston *Pilot* is convinced that "the Church is to find in Pius X. a wise, progressive, and prudent head to continue the policy of his illustrious predecessor"; and *The Catholic News* (New York) says:

"On all sides the action of the conclave is heartily approved. Catholics hail the new Pope—who has chosen the title of Pius X.—as eminently fitting to follow the great Leo; Protestants greet him as a scholarly, charitable, and devoutly religious man: and it is said that even the Italian Government welcomes his election. Under such circumstances it is apparent that a better choice could not have been made."

POPE PIUS X.,
Formerly Cardinal Giuseppe Sarto, Patriarch of Venice.

From the pages of the New York *Freeman's Journal* we summarize the following account of the career of the new Pontiff:

Giuseppe Sarto was born on June 2, 1835, at Riese, and made his preliminary studies at two institutions, one in Treviso, and the other, the Seminary of Padova. The career opening before him surely had no more promise than that of the average young priest of humble origin.

On September 18, 1858, he was ordained priest at Castle France, and in November of that year became assistant to the pastor of the village parish of Tombolo. There he labored for nearly a decade, and in November, 1867, was made pastor of the parish at Salsano. Eight years more went by, to March, 1875, when he received the first high honors in the Church. These were distinctive of the kind of work in which he was to excel in later life. In the year mentioned he was appointed Chancellor of the Diocese of Treviso, and by successive appointments became Spiritual Director of the Seminary, Examiner of the Clergy, and Judge of the Ecclesiastical Court. Soon after, the additional honor came of an appointment to be Vicar of the Chapter, the see of Salsano being vacant, and in that office he performed the administrative duties falling upon a bishop until the next advance made him Bishop of Mantua by appointment in 1884.

It was in the consistory of June 12, 1893, that Leo conferred upon Sarto the red cap of cardinal, the latter becoming cardinal Priest of the titular Church of San Bernardo alle Termo. Almost immediately came the transfer to Venice, and additional honor, that of appointment to be Patriarch.

The conflict between the Vatican and the Italian Government over the right of nominating a patriarch of Venice naturally brought Sarto into the public eye at the very outset of his career there, calling attention to the friendship he had been known to entertain for the house of Savoy and placing him at once on the side of those in the Sacred College who were the more favorably inclined toward the Government. At the time it was feared that Sarto would offend Pope Leo. But Leo was not offended, and the reason he did not take umbrage at the words of his outspoken cardinal was shown to be that he understood Sarto better than did the others.

In his management of the see of Venice Cardinal Sarto proved himself a strict churchman, and the record of several acts comes down as evidence to this end. He found there more or less laxity among the diocesan clergy, and he instituted several corrective measures which brought discipline up to the desired pitch. He abolished the veneration of relics of doubtful authenticity; he revived the use of the Gregorian chant in Venice, and insisted that his priests should observe strictly the liturgical rules. A feature of his services was the requirement that the Gospel lesson read on Sundays and fast-days should be expounded to the people in the vernacular.

The new Pope is a patron of the arts, and his private gallery of paintings in the Seminario Patriarcale is of more than ordinary value. Under his direction the music of St. Mark's has become famous, and his earnest patronage of the musician, Perosi leaves little doubt that he will have care for the development of the music of the church.

Personally the Pope appears somewhat older than the published pictures make him, since these all are taken from prints made seven or eight years ago. A man of medium height and of good physique, he gives the impression of great activity and power, while the quiet dignity of his bearing is at once attractive and impressive. Beyond all else, he is personally the most unassuming, and is reputed to have gained more than one friendship through this attribute. He has led in Venice a life of the utmost simplicity, but at the great ceremonials of the church he presides with impressive dignity.

The policy of the new Pope is a subject for discussion and speculation in many quarters. One of the most definite pronouncements yet made is that of Cardinal Cavagnis, the learned canonist, who is reported to have said:

"Pius X. will insist upon the parochial work being well done. He found the patriarchate of Venice in chaos. He left it a garden spot of the Church.

"He will promote the Gregorian music, of which he is very fond. He is Perosi's patron, and will execute the reforms in the Gregorian chant suggested by Perosi. This ought to interest American churchmen.

"Pius will follow his predecessor without being irreconcilable. Americans ought to be pleased to know that he will follow Leo's policy. He will extend the Christian propaganda without exciting jealousies among the states in whose colonies Catholic missions exercise the most influence."

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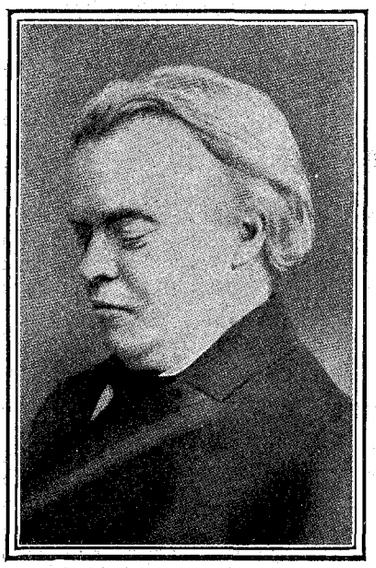
THE FUTURE OF ROMAN CATHOLICISM.

IT is generally recognized that the influence of the late Pope Leo was cast upon the side of what is called "liberal" Catholicism. His attitude toward some of the most momentous problems of modern theology, including those of the "higher criticism," was the attitude of an investigator rather than of a dogmatist; and in his famous encyclical directing that the "precious wisdom" of St. Thomas Aquinas should be restored to its ancient place of honor, he specifically counseled Roman Catholic scholars to study this liberal philosopher in the original, and to apply his spirit of inquiry to modern problems. A question profoundly affecting intellectual and religious development throughout the world is involved in the attitude of the new Pope toward the "neo-scholastic" movement encouraged by his predecessor. Josiah Royce, Professor of the History of Philosophy in Harvard University, discusses this subject at some length in the pages of the Boston *Transcript* (July 29). He writes:



PROF. JOSIAH ROYCE, OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY,
Who discusses the possibility of an intellectual "reaction" in the Roman Catholic Church.

"If the process which Leo initiated continues to go on unhindered, the positive results for the increase of a wholesome cooperation between Catholic and non-Catholic investigators and teachers will probably be both great and wholesome. On the other hand, if this same process is seriously and effectively checked by the forces of conservative officialism within the Roman communion, the consequence will be a return to certain forms of controversy and of mutual misunderstanding among some of the principal schools of modern opinion, a return which no lover of reason ought to welcome. The death of the Pope, the choice of his successor, bring into prominence the distinctly practical issues whose nature is thus suggested. These issues concern, indeed, in the first place, the inner life of the Roman Church. But they also indirectly concern, in a genuine sense, the common interests of modern intellectual progress and of public education."

Professor Royce goes on to point out the degree to which the intellectual life of the Roman Catholic Church has actually been altered in the course of this process:

"I recognize how very conservative the great body of Catholic theologians have remained, and I do not imagine that either the dogmas or the political policy of that Church will undergo any notable change at any early date in consequence of the movement of which I speak, no matter how far it goes. But what I do see, as I look over the recent literature of discussion, is (1) that there is a distinct increase of active cooperation on the part of Catholic scholars in the relatively neutral tasks of modern science and scholarship. I see also (2) that there is a great increase in the understanding and appreciation of philosophers (such, for instance, as Kant), whom Catholic teachers all used to condemn without reserve or knowledge, but whom some of them, notably in France, have lately been disposed not only to comprehend, but also, in certain respects, openly to follow. And (3) I also read, occasionally, efforts to show that there is nothing in the 'philosophical principles' of scholasticism which is at all hostile to the transformation of species, or to the whole set of doctrines known by the name of evolution, in so far, at least, as these doctrines are matters of natural science. Nor are such views limited to men like the late unhappy Mivart—men who are at heart only half-way Catholics, and who, any day, may have to break with their Church as he did. No, I find such views maintained, with various modifications, by men whose position amongst the faithful seems, at least, when viewed from without, to be quite secure."

Proceeding to a consideration of the future influence of the "liberal" movement, Professor Royce writes:

"Will Catholic officialism—conservative as it is, political as its motives have to be, reactionary as its policy has so often been—will such officialism permit the new Catholic scholarship further liberty to develop on these lines? Will not the new Pope . . . undertake to bring to a pause the evolution of these tendencies toward a reform of Catholic philosophy, and toward an era of good feeling between Catholic and non-Catholic science and scholarship? I confess to a good deal of doubt upon this subject. I confess also that I am rather disposed to anticipate a reaction against all this natural, but, as I fancy, officially unexpected growth that has taken place in the world of Catholic scholarship within the last two decades. The Catholic Church is to-day, as of old, an institution under the control of men to whom scholarship and even wisdom will always be secondary to motives of a decidedly worldly sort. I can not hope that the officials will, in the long run, tolerate the philosophers, unless the latter show themselves less vital in their inquiries, and less eager in their mental activities, than they have recently been.

"But what an admirable opportunity for a genuine spiritual growth will be lost if Leo's revival of Catholic philosophy has even its first fruits cut off and is not permitted to bear the still richer fruit that, in case it is unhindered, it will some day surely bring forth."

A more optimistic view of the future of Roman Catholicism is voiced by *Harper's Weekly* (August 8):

"We are not among those who expect that the twentieth century will witness a reabsorption by Catholicism of many, if any, of the Protestant sects that seceded from it some four hundred years ago. It is quite possible that individual members of the High-Church wing of the Anglican communion may in increasing numbers go over to the Church of Rome. It is also possible that like sporadic conversions may take place in those Continental countries in which Episcopal hierarchies were established by the Lutherans. The Anglican and Lutheran bodies, however, will no doubt retain for a long period their separate organizations, and this may be predicted with an even closer approach to certainty of the Presbyterians, the Congregationalists, the Baptists, and other minor Protestant sects. But while no reabsorption on a considerable scale is probable, there will be evolved a tolerance, and even a sympathy, for Catholicism of which in Protestant countries there was no trace a hundred years ago.

"Of the growth of such tolerance and sympathy we see everywhere impressive evidences. They are as visible in England, and even in Scotland, as they are in Prussia, Denmark, and Holland, and they are nowhere more conspicuous than they are in the United States. As we have formerly pointed out, an attempt at this time to raise the 'No-Popery' cry in England would simply provoke derision, and only a lunatic would try to revive to-day the anti-Catholic 'Know-Nothing' party that was for an hour so powerful half a century ago. The Catholic Church is now regarded by statesmen and political economists in Protestant countries as a useful if not indispensable coadjutor in the work of upholding the existing order. The inevitableness of such an alliance was so clearly recognized by Karl Marx that he made the repudiation of Catholicism a cardinal tenet of the Socialist creed. His injunction has been heeded in both Germany and France; and, by a natural counter-movement, all the conservative forces of society are beginning to occupy a friendly position toward the Catholic Church. In view of this new alinement of forces, the papacy is justified in looking forward with equanimity, if not with confidence, to the possible vicissitudes of the twentieth century."

Problems Unsolved by Evolution.—Evolution, as a scientific theory, and theology have very little to do with each other; evolution neither increases materially the theologian's difficulties nor helps him to solve them, if we are to accept the conclusions of Dr. William Hallock Johnson, who writes at length on the subject in *The Princeton Theological Review* (Philadelphia). "The

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attitude of theology toward evolution," Dr. Johnson reminds us, "was first that of pronounced or even violent antagonism; then that of partial acceptance and incorporation; and there is now evidence that we have passed into a third stage, which may be called that of comparative indifference." In the conclusion of his long and careful review of the relations between theology and evolution, Dr. Johnson sums up his views as follows:

"It can not be denied that evolution still proposes to the apologist and the exegete some questions whose answer as yet can only be provisional. Our thesis has simply been that recent discussions, both from the theological and the scientific side, have emphasized the 'limits of evolution,' and so tended to minimize its importance for theology. It has not given us the key with which the mysteries of existence can be unlocked. It has thrown no light upon the question of ultimate origin, whether of matter, of life, of mind, of conscience, of sin. It has left unsolved the fundamental metaphysical questions differently decided by atheism, pantheism, deism, and theism. In its philosophical form it postulates an unbroken continuity, but, apart from theistic evolution, can not reconcile this continuity with the progress it describes. In the citadel of its strength—the biological field—it renounces, in its most recent form, all attempt to explain the origin of species, that is, to assign a *vera causa* for their appearance."

ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON'S RELIGION.

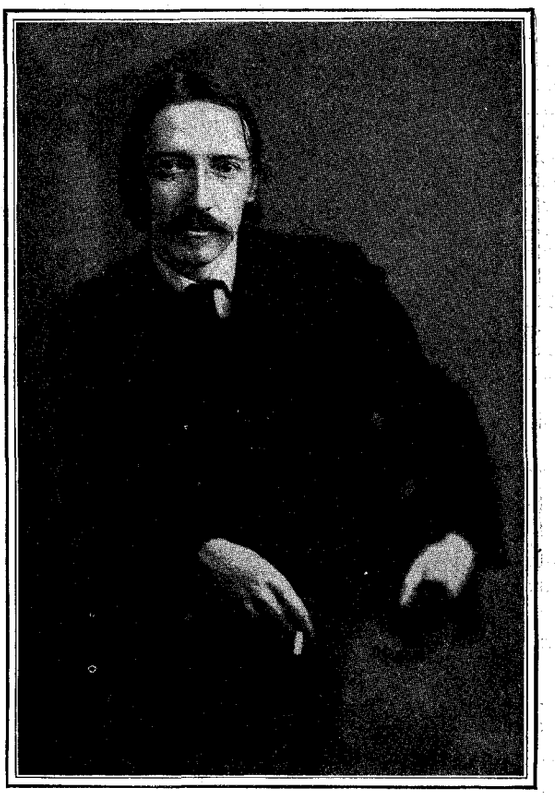
THE growing interest in the work and personality of Stevenson finds expression in a new book, entitled "The Faith of Robert Louis Stevenson." Its author, the Rev. John Kelman, of Edinburgh, attempts to estimate in religious terms Stevenson's philosophy of life, tho he confesses at the outset that the task is somewhat perplexing. "The numberless apparent incongruities and conflicting aspects of Stevenson's life," he says, "might at first tempt one to take a cynical view of the situation, and to count him among those who smile at faith. Yet no one who knows the spirit of his work could permanently accept that easy but impossible solution. Even after a slight acquaintance the religious element is apparent, and further study serves only to show it more deep and clear." Mr. Kelman goes on to say:

"In all true strength there is the consciousness of another and greater Power in the universe before which man's strength is but weakness. . . . Accordingly we find that there is an element of fatalism, in one form or another, in all really great thinkers, and Stevenson is no exception. Sometimes, as in 'Olalla,' this appears in a sense of the dread physical forces of the world, whose play is seen in natural law in general, and in heredity in particular. . . . In other passages, rebellion against the established order of the universe is exhibited in all its futile irrationality on the one hand; God's slow but irresistible designs are manifest on the other. 'The world, the universe, turns on vast hinges, proceeds on a huge plan; you, and we, and—and all, I potently believe it—used for good; but we are all—and this I know—as the dust of the balances. The loss or the salvation of the *Lübeck* was weighed, and was decided, in the hour of birth of the universe.'"

The spirit of fatalism, we are reminded, has ever exerted a double influence in the world, discouraging the weak and bracing the strong. To Stevenson the thought of inevitable ill only came as a spur to greater achievement. He determined, as he said, "to waylay destiny and bid him stand and deliver."

"The result in character was one of the most brilliant records of human courage which are to be found anywhere in the biographies of British men. Courage is not one of the highest or most delicate virtues. It is closely connected with the physical life, and even moral and intellectual daring has its root among the nerves of a man. Yet even so, it is, in Stevenson's phrase, 'the footstool of the virtues, upon which they stand,' and, therefore, it is 'the principal virtue, for all the others presuppose it,' so that 'no man is of any use until he has dared everything.' It is a noteworthy fact that in almost every one of his recorded prayers there is a petition for courage, for it will generally be found that a man's most distinguishing characteristic is that for which he has oftenest prayed. That the circumstances of his life demanded an unusual fortitude will be denied by none who have any knowledge of the facts. In Vailima the demand became excessive. 'Vailima Letters,' from this point of view, records a continuous succession of troubles. . . As we read of the incessant returns of protracting illness and blindness; pain in the head, the back, the limbs; wakefulness, and its sense of ruin; fever, racking cough, and bleeding lungs; we can but thank God for a creature able to meet them all as he did. Dr. Robertson Nicoll has somewhere said very memorably that to understand Robert Louis Stevenson *one must have put up a little blood.*"

The conjunction of fatalism and courage in Stevenson's temperament could only lead him to a serious view of moral life. "The difficulty of life's task and the height of its calling," says Mr. Kelman, "are ever before him, and it was the sense of these which gave him some of his greatest thoughts." We quote further:



ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON,

"As he conceived it, normal human life was something clean and healthy, as well as robust, lived in the open air, freshened by a breeze; and this frank and natural ideal dominated all departments of his thought."

"Chief among such thoughts was that of dual personality, which found so speedy and world-wide a recognition in 'Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde.' Popular religion adopted the allegory partly because it was a modern echo of St. Paul's words to the Romans, in which the apostle describes himself as leading the double life of unwilling sin and unfulfilled desire for holiness. But still more must the popularity of 'Jekyll and Hyde' be attributed to its ghastly truthfulness as a rescript of common experience. In this mysterious twofoldness of the inner life it was felt that Stevenson, like St. Paul before him, had exposed the root of all our moral difficulties. It is because of the war of the carnal man against the spiritual and within them that the best men, tho they may approach the great task and adventure of life with light hearts, grow grave and stern as they advance. For Stevenson this was a dominant type of ethical thought, and it is never absent from any of his delineations of character. It corresponds with the duality which he finds in nature—the 'beauty and terror of the world.' . . . In 'Deacon Brodie' the tragedy is represented as it wrought itself out in an actual history . . . The 'Master of Ballantrae' is another instance, in which the refined sensitiveness of the exterior serves but to

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throw into darker relief the impudent grossness within. It is the personal note of deep and sore experience that makes all such descriptions of the double life and its warfare so wonderfully telling."

Stevenson's gospel, declares Mr. Kelman, may be summed up in the two words, "Manliness and Health." "As he conceived it, normal human life was something clean and healthy as well as robust, lived in the open air, freshened by a breeze; and this frank and natural ideal dominated all departments of his thought." We quote, in conclusion:

"*Health* is, above all other words, the distinguishing and appropriate word for him. Cynicism he hates as an acute and disastrous form of morbidness. . . . In contrast with all such morbidness we turn to his descriptions of heroes and to those casual lists of ideals in which a writer betrays without premeditation his own preference and admiration. Here are a few of them, typical of many others: 'Fire, thrift, and courage—a creature full-blooded and inspired with energy.' 'Never to set up to be soft, only to be square and hearty, and a man all round.' 'A fine face, honorable rather than intelligent, strong, simple, and righteous.' 'Strong, healthy, high-strung, and generous natures.' 'Very, very nice fellows, simple, good, and not the least dull.' Such estimates prepare us for the more deliberate summary of human virtue which is now one of the most familiar of his sayings: 'To be honest, to be kind—to earn a little and to spend a little less; to make upon the whole a family happier for his presence, to renounce when that shall be necessary and not be embittered, to keep a few friends, but these without capitulation—above all, on the same grim condition, to keep friends with himself—here is a task for all that a man has of fortitude and delicacy.' The closing words may be taken as the best possible summary of his ideals, and the best account also of his achievement. Fortitude and delicacy—in these is the fulfilling of the law according to R. L. S."

A Secular View of the "Decadence of Preaching."—"Poor preaching, the utterly inadequate nature of a great many of the sermons delivered from the modern pulpit, especially where Christians differ in their Christianity as they do in this land of multitudinous sects, is probably more responsible than all other causes combined for what so many clergymen with questionable exactness define as modern lack of piety." So thinks the Providence *Journal*, a newspaper much concerned by what it terms the "decadence of preaching" in these latter days. It quotes with approval an expression of regret from the London *Spectator* that "the Church has abandoned her plan of providing sermons for such as had no facility for public speaking," and goes on to say:

"Men will differ until the end of time, such are the divers ways of human nature, as to the exact significance of the teachings of Christ. But every interpretation, to carry conviction to the minds and hearts of more than one or two, and to bear fruit in good works, ought to be reasonably conceived and soberly and intelligently as well as charitably, set forth. But soberness and intelligence, and even charity, are rarer in the pulpit than they should be. How many preachers denounce where they should encourage, sneer where they should soothe, plant fear instead of hope in the hearts of the timid, or are scornful where they should be infinitely patient! And how many preachers who have no other aim in life than to do good to their fellows—those excellent men who can not preach—undo in the pulpit all that they accomplish elsewhere because of 'slipshod English,' 'disjointed arguments,' 'trivial anecdotes,' and 'strings of conventional catchwords,' as *The Spectator* enumerates them!

"The value of a word to the wise is proverbial. Men are no worse than they used to be, nor is Christian charity any rarer under the sun. But if the officials of the Church would insist upon a higher intellectual and educational standard of admission to the clergy, or at least would select with the care practised in other professions those who are commissioned to expound the riddles of philosophy to a world that nowadays does more of its own thinking than ever before, the influence of the clergy upon our daily lives would be vastly greater than it is, and there would be many less to sit in the seat of the scornful and far fewer sinners outside the fold."

NEW LIGHT ON THE STAR OF BETHLEHEM.

THE countless literary finds made of late, especially in Egypt, that pertain to the period of the New-Testament writings, have often surprised scholars by furnishing data in perplexing Biblical problems. One of the latest contributions of this sort comes in a special pamphlet from the pen of Baron F. von Aefele ("Die Augaben der Berliner Planetentofel, P. 8279)," which throws new light on the "Star of Bethlehem." The leading facts are as follows:

Kepler, on the basis of his discovery of the course of the planets, made the discovery that after the year 7 B.C. there occurred the rare *conjunctio maxima* of the constellation of Jupiter and Saturn—the sign of the Ram. The leading star of this constellation, Jupiter, he declared to have been the Star of Bethlehem. This claim secured all the more recognition by the further discovery that the traditional chronology of the New Testament, as worked out by Dionysius, was incorrect, and that Herod the Great had died in the fifth year before Christ, so that Christ would then have been born 4 B.C. at latest. The suggestion of Kepler, nevertheless, met with a good deal of doubt, the story of the star being considered rather in the light of a myth than of historical fact.

Recently, however, there has been discovered in Egypt and brought to Berlin a list of the positions of the planets from the year 17 B.C. to 10 A.D. In this list this *conjunctio maxima*, which the mathematical calculations of Kepler had worked out, is mentioned as a fact, and is described with all possible details as a phenomenon that had on this occasion appeared for the first time since the days of Alexander the Great. A demotic description accompanies this papyrus table, which agrees throughout with the main facts as reported in the second chapter of Matthew. In fact, the agreement is surprising in its extent. It is said, for example, that the star "stood" over Bethlehem—a statement which commentators, and among them the latest, Holtzmann, declare to be poetical; but in this Egyptian account it appears that the expression "stood" is the astronomical technical term used to designate the *conjunctio maxima* of Jupiter that occurred on the 26th of December, 6 B.C. This latter fact explains, too, why the primitive Church appointed December as the Christmas month; not because this or that Roman or Greek divinity had been celebrated on that day, and his service was adopted by the Christian Church, but because the early Christians knew that Christ was born in December.

An interesting parallel discussion as to the day of Christ's death, as computed on the basis of new data furnished by Professor Ochelis, appeared in THE LITERARY DIGEST May 15.—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

RELIGIOUS NOTES.

IN our columns recently Swâmi Abhedanânda was erroneously referred to as "the late Swamî Abhedanânda," owing to a confusion of his identity with that of the late Swâmi Vivekanânda.

SOME interesting information in regard to ministerial salaries has been furnished to *The Church Economist* (New York) by the Rev. Dr. W. H. Roberts, stated clerk of the Presbyterian General Assembly. Speaking for his own church, he says that one hundred ministers receive a salary of $5,000 or more, 300 receive from $3,500 to $5,000, and 700 receive between $2,000 and $3,500. "In other words," comments *The Economist*, "of the 7,800 ministers, less than 1½ in 100 are paid $5,000, slightly over 5 in 100 receive $3,500 or more, and about 14 in 100 receive $2,000 or more."

GERONIMO and a dozen of his Apache warriors have joined the Methodist Church, and were recently baptized at Fort Sill, I. T., in the presence of a large crowd of Indians and whites. To quote the press despatches: "With the Comanches sitting on one side of the tabernacle and the Apaches on the other, each tribe with its interpreter standing in the foreground repeating the words of the white preacher, the minister stood and told the story of Christ. At the close of the sermon, Geronimo and twelve of his warriors, prisoners at Fort Sill, went forward and asked to be received into the church. In the afternoon the baptismal ceremony took place."

THEORETICALLY all religions may be freely professed in the Russian empire, according to *The Celestial Empire* (Shanghai), with the exception of the Jewish. "There are said to be about 12,000,000 dissenters in Great Russia alone. These include Armenians, Roman Catholics, Protestants, Lutherans, Mohammedans, Jews, and pagans. All these bodies have for many years worshiped in their own churches or temples. But these have never belonged to the Greek faith, and they have not received recruits from that faith. It is only when any member of the Orthodox Church demands for himself liberty of thought and conscience, so far as to follow it out of that communion into a dissenting church, that the law of Russia interferes and sternly forbids such liberty."

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FOREIGN TOPICS.

DIPLOMACY OF PIUS X.

THE papal policy of Pius X. will be conciliatory and peaceful, according to the Austrian press, which seems to be alone in possessing any familiarity with his views and purposes as an international factor. Altho the new Pope was an unknown quantity to the leading journals of France, England, and Germany when he was proclaimed to the crowds waiting outside the Vatican, we find the *Fremdenblatt* (Vienna) stating positively that he will maintain friendly relations with all the nations and strive to remove all causes of political controversy. The *Neue Freie Presse* (Vienna) takes pretty much the same view. "He is a simple, modest, priestly character," it observes, "who finds a satisfying field for his energies in his calling as a pastor of souls, and who devotes himself entirely to that end. He is merely the son of a peasant from the rural districts, and in his character and demeanor the humble nature of his origin is manifest. He is of an undersized and rather undistinguished appearance. A pair of keen eyes peer forth from the kindly countenance. His candor and unflinching truthfulness have won him a host of friends in the ranks of the upper and lower clergy. His pacific disposition is a guaranty of a quiet, peaceful Vatican policy." The *Pester Lloyd* (Budapest) notes that the cardinals of the curia have again failed to produce a pope from among themselves. With reference to the international influence of Pius X. the *Indépendance Belge* (Brussels) remarks:

"The Church can henceforth exercise only a moral influence in the world, and foreign governments will more and more see to it that it is restricted to its religious functions merely. This is proper and is in harmony with the best interests of mankind, which has only suffered from the political activities of the Church. Men realize to-day that it is proper that they strive for their material well-being. The Church's influence in affairs of state should be nothing whatever. It is imperative to work against the Church whenever it strives to regain control of what it has cost centuries of effort to wrest from her grasp. The Pope may not easily resign himself to playing the mere part of a religious superior—a part which is, nevertheless, sublime if he could be brought to see it in its lofty grandeur—and he may not be consoled at being no longer master of the world, but he can accomplish nothing against the forces of evolution and of human thought."

The relations of the Vatican and the Quirinal are not expected to undergo any fundamental change. In this sense the German press expresses itself. The *Vossische Zeitung* (Berlin) thinks the times are not ripe for anything beyond a less tense attitude between the secular and the religious powers in Rome. The *Hamburger Nachrichten* goes into the subject in some detail as follows:

"The relations between the Vatican and the Quirinal . . . will continue strained. It can not be otherwise, for either the Pope must renounce in principle his claim to the city of Rome and the states of the Church, thereby despoiling the papacy, or the kingdom of Italy must abandon its capital. Both these alternatives are impossible. The only thing left is a *modus vivendi*. The true basis for that is the Italian law of guaranties of May 13, 1871. The rights thereby accorded the Pope may be easily summed up:

"As regards the person of the Pope himself, it is inviolable according to this law of guaranties. His assassination or complicity in a conspiracy for his assassination is punishable on precisely the same terms as a like crime against the King of Italy. Royal honors are conferred upon the Pope wherever he may be in Italy, and the same rights to personal consideration are granted him that are recognized in him by all Catholic sovereigns. Should he have an interview with the king, he takes precedence of the king. The Pope has also a right to a prescribed number of government troops as his bodyguard, and government troops are at his disposal for the guarding of the Vatican. His personal inviolability is protected further by the inviolability of his residence, which no Italian government official may enter without the express permission of the Pope.

"In consequence of the peculiar circumstances which led to this position of the Pope the latter has become in many respects more independent and less amenable to any responsibility than he ever was before. The Pope need no longer fear any attempt upon his personal liberty. He can not be constrained by any rebellion of his subjects or by any interference from a foreign power, unless the foreign Power destroys first the kingdom of Italy. The practical result of all this immunity is that the Pope enjoys greater sovereign rights than any other ruler to-day. If one king offends another by word or pen, the offended king can retort by the usual methods permitted according to international law. Against the Pope in a similar contingency an offended king has no other weapons than those which come from suspending diplomatic relations. The Pope has no further measures to dread. Italy, which guarantees his inviolability, can neither punish him herself nor permit any other Power to invade Italian soil for the purpose of punishing him. In this respect, therefore, the inviolability of the papacy is better protected than it was in the days when a foreign power, by invading the states of the Church, could make reprisals. The Pope has been placed out of reach.

"Nor is he placed within reach by any other government means. A foreign creditor of the Italian Government or of the Italian king may put in a claim against the treasury. The king can not, indeed, be sued personally, but his courts, which administer justice in his name, can give judgment against his civil appropriation list and compel payment. No clause of the national constitution shuts the royal door to a court process. The Pope, on the other hand, is not merely incapable of being sued personally, and is not amenable merely to a court writ, but no court process or judgment can be served upon him. Nor can any court process be served upon a single one of the Pope's officials while in the Vatican, a circumstance growing out of that part of the law of guaranties which specifies that no Italian government official can enter the Vatican limits without the express permission of the Pope."

Nevertheless, according to the German daily, the papacy is not likely to change its attitude toward the Italian Government. On the other hand, his attitude will be personally conciliatory, a view indorsed in France. The *Figaro* (Paris) does not consider the new Pope a particular friend of Germany. The *Tribuna* (Rome), writing before the election of Pius X., said that France would not be estranged whatever be the result of the conclave, and the Paris *Temps* expressed the same view. To the English press the election of the Patriarch of Venice to the chair of St. Peter was a surprise. Nothing definite as to what the policy of the new Pope will be can be gleaned from London organs just now.

DIFFICULTIES OF THE SPANISH NAVY.

IT is well known that "the naval grandeur of Spain succumbed in Manila Bay and in Cuban waters during the disasters of the American war." So we read in the Paris *Temps*. But a patriotic Spanish statesman, Señor Sanchez Toca, wishes to revive this naval grandeur. To this end he urged an appropriation which, altho not huge, is, relatively to Spain's capacity for raising money, immense. Señor Villaverde, who happened to be Finance Minister when the question of the navy presented itself, left the cabinet at once. Now he is back in office as Premier, the former ministry of Señor Silvela having almost wholly disappeared. The *Imparcial* (Madrid) infers from this that the rebuilding of the Spanish navy will proceed at a pace more in consonance with Spain's finances than was at first suggested. But it professes itself rather uncertain upon this point, because, as it alleges, an alliance has been made with France upon the basis of Spain's claims in Morocco. Spain, we read further in the *Epoca* (Madrid), is not interested in the problems of international import now troubling the other Powers. But she has a vital concern in northern Africa, and will not tolerate any disregard of that fact. Therefore she must have a strong navy. The *Frankfurter Zeitung* thus comments:

"The Silvela cabinet has gone and a Villaverde cabinet takes its place. From the course adopted by Villaverde during the discussion that led to the crisis it can be seen what his policy will be: economy, sound finance, and reform of the army and navy only to the extent warranted by the pecuniary resources of the land. As a

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result, all the great schemes with reference to Morocco must collapse. The new Premier is credited with the intention of governing, not with the aid of the old Conservative hacks, but with the aid of new and young men. The list of those who have entered the ministry confirms this impression. The names are for the most part new, and the men have not hitherto been generally known in political circles. For the rest the policy of Villaverde will not differ essentially from that of Silvela. This is more particularly true as regards the attitude of the Government toward the church. It is well known that Silvela granted all the Vatican's demands, and he was ready to give legal recognition to all the religious orders that had not complied with the terms of the law passed on their account. In fact, he had announced to the Cortes that he would not lay before it the compact entered into with the Vatican, but would put it into effect upon his own responsibility. Villaverde will differ from Silvela only in that he will govern with more economy. The Spaniards have become easier to please. They will be content with this improvement if it is really brought about."—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

THE WAI-WU-PU.

CHINA'S official board for the conduct of foreign affairs, styled the Wai-wu-pu, is the great instrument by means of which Russia carries out her plan of circumventing the Powers in the Far East, according to the general opinion of those European newspapers which adopt an anti-Russian tone. The Wai-wu-pu came into existence about a year ago, superseding the old Tsung-li-Yamen, and it enjoys precedence over all other boards, as well as enjoying the privilege of appointing many secretaries and subordinate diplomatic officials. Ku Chao-hsi is one of the most recently appointed members of the Wai-wu-pu, and he is described by the London *Times* as "a statesman who knows not a word of any foreign language, has never held office before, and has never been out of China. He is ignorant, even for a Chinaman, of foreign affairs, but the Chinese defend his appointment on the ground that he writes beautiful Chinese characters. His chief characteristic is that he is almost as deaf as the aged Wang Wen-shao, his chief colleague." On the staff of the Wai-wu-pu is Wu Ting Fang, some time Chinese Minister in Washington. His post, according to the London daily quoted above, is a very subordinate one.

According to the London *Times*, the Wai-wu-pu is deliberately lending itself to what it calls the series of duplicates, by means of which the present situation of affairs in the Far East was brought about. Prince Ching, executive head of the Wai-wu-pu, is mainly responsible for everything, so far as a mere tool can be said to be responsible, we are assured. He is apt to be sick when representatives of the Powers desire to see him, unless those representatives happen to be Russian. To quote the exact words of the London *Times* recently:

"Since M. Lessar [the Russian Minister] returned from St. Petersburg to Peking active negotiations have been once more proceeding with regard to the Manchurian question between the Russian legation and the Wai-wu-pu. Whilst Prince Ching was pleading sickness in order to avoid seeing other foreign representatives, he was in close communication with the Russian Minister, and, tho nothing is yet definitely known as to the outcome of these negotiations, and Prince Ching himself, according to the telegram we publish this morning from our Peking correspondent, denies that he has signed any secret agreement, the President of the Wai-wu-pu admits that he has sent a memorandum to the Russian legation containing the Chinese answer to the demands put forward by M. de Plançon [Russian chargé d'affaires in Peking] in his famous note of April 18. Until we know the nature of that answer the value of Prince Ching's denial of the secret agreement must remain a matter of speculation. It must be noted, however, that Japanese diplomacy at Peking has not yet relaxed its efforts to secure the opening of new 'ports' in Manchuria to foreign trade—a measure which has also been pressed upon the Chinese by the United States Government in connection with the new treaty of commerce that is being negotiated at Shanghai. That the Chinese Government should undertake not to open any new treaty ports in Manchuria or to admit any new consuls without the consent of Russia was one of the chief demands which M. de Plançon set forth as a condition for the execution by Russia of the convention for the evacuation of Manchuria—demands of which the existence was denied by the Russian Government, but of which a copy was fortunately given by M. de Plançon himself to the American Minister at Peking. In this and in other respects the result of M. Lessar's negotiations with Prince Ching will show definitely how much the 'open door,' to which Russia stands pledged, proves worth in practise, and what reliance can be placed upon Count Benkendorff's [Russian ambassador in London] assurance to Lord Lansdowne that nothing is further from her thoughts than the obstruction of foreign commerce in Manchuria, where it can not be developed without treaty ports.

"Whatever the immediate upshot of these negotiations, the present position of Russia in that province and the sway she exercises over the central Government at Peking are a remarkable proof of the results which may be achieved by that system of railway policy of which our statesmen used to speak so lightly four or five years ago. Lord Salisbury at that time confessed that he could not see how the liberty to make and run a railway could give to any foreign country a political power over China. No Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs is likely to assert that view ever again."

Since the above was written, however, the United States has succeeded in obtaining from the Wai-wu-pu an agreement for the opening of certain free ports in Manchuria in the "open-door" sense. This victory for the diplomacy of Mr. Hay is really due to Russian dread of United States action in the Far East, declares the Paris *Temps*. "Nevertheless," it adds, "it is not to be supposed that the work of American diplomacy, happily as it has been begun, is on the eve of completion. Mr. Conger, United States minister in Peking, is about to negotiate a treaty with the Wai-wu-pu. This instrument, commercial in nature, will have considerable importance. It will define the conditions upon which the new Manchurian ports are to be opened both as regards China and as regards the nations claiming benefit under the most-favored nation clause. It will also settle the likin question as well as that of internal customs duties now in confusion." The *Journal des Débats* (Paris) says the Wa-wu-pu will be guided in the negotiations by Russian influences and the Empress-Dowager. The Empress-Dowager, we are further assured, will fill the Wai-wu-pu with nonentities. As for Prince Ching, he continues to be her creature. *The Universal Gazette* (Shanghai), a native Chinese paper, expresses dissatisfaction with the diplomacy of the Wai-wu-pu, and especially with the course of its official head, Prince Ching. To quote its words, as translated in *The Celestial Empire*, a British paper published in Shanghai:

"When we learned first that the ministers of the Grand Council and the Wai-wu-pu were not inclined to agree to the opening of Moukden and Tatungkou [ports in Manchuria] to foreign trade, as suggested by the American treaty commissioners, we feared for an unfortunate ending of the Manchurian question. But if China willingly agrees to the demands of Russia and makes an agreement consenting to them, the position of China will be hopeless, and partition of the empire will be the immediate result; other Powers, anxious to assist the Chinese Emperor and to preserve the seat of the dynasty, have stated that if the Russian demands are complied with, they will require compensating advantages elsewhere. This is done to give the Chinese Government a good excuse for refusing Russia's demands, but if the Powers see that China does not want to be assisted, and that she accepts Russian domination in the North, they will naturally not be disposed to make further efforts to prevent the dismemberment of the empire. They will then each seek its own advantage.

"In our opinion, altho Russian aggression is a serious danger for China, it is not so serious as the corruption, apathy, and lack of patriotism shown by the high officials to whom the government of the empire is entrusted. Prince Ching and other high officials, Chinese and Manchu, at Peking appear to be unable to realize their country's needs. What influences are brought to bear upon them by the Russian legation we do not like to inquire, but the result is deplorable. They appear to seek their own private inter-

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ests and ease without regard to the incalculable injury which their actions must inflict on millions of their fellow subjects. Officials of this kind are a more serious source of danger to the state than any foreign invaders, for their existence at the center of administration proves that the whole fabric of government is rotten, and rottenness in such case means impending death. We would advise all patriotic Chinese to join in begging the throne not to allow of any secret agreement with the Russians being agreed to by Prince Ching."

GREAT BRITAIN'S PURPOSE REGARDING THE UNITED STATES.

NOTWITHSTANDING the traditions of the United States —traditions which date back to the first administration of President Washington—it is the intention of one or more of the European Powers to "lure" the great republic into a definite alliance. Such is the conclusion reached by some French organs. The Paris *Temps* thinks the United States will never abandon its traditions to the extent of forming an alliance with a European power, altho a recent writer in the *Revue Bleue* (Paris) thinks there is every prospect of "concerted action" between France and the United States in the solution of present world problems. In the British press, and notably in the London *Times*, the idea prevails that Germany is seeking to involve the United States with herself, while in Germany there are constant newspaper warnings to the United States to hold aloof from Great Britain. The *Hamburger Nachrichten*, for instance, asserts that Great Britain is trying hard to form an American alliance. It says:

"Nothing is more characteristic of the true position in which Great Britain finds herself than her efforts to gain the friendship of the United States. The 'splendid isolation' of which Great Britain was once so proud can not maintain itself in the face of the systems of alliances of the remaining Powers without subjecting British interests to the peril of damage. Great Britain can adopt no measures whatever against Russia, whether as regards Manchuria or Korea or the Balkan problem. The Russians put aside all British protests against their proceedings, no matter whether those protests take the form of diplomatic notes or of newspaper editorials. The Russians simply act as their interests demand. With well-concealed but none the less great anxiety British diplomatists see the day draw ever nearer when British supremacy in India can no longer withstand Russia's approach or Russia's preponderating bulk. Great Britain also sees her position in Egypt and in the Mediterranean seriously jeopardized by the forward march of Russia. No Powers have a more direct or more powerful interest in the expulsion of Great Britain from Egypt than the allies France and Russia. Official compliments and visits can alter nothing in this regard. The interests of the Powers are stronger than these considerations.

"Great Britain is in neither a military nor a naval situation to defend the world position she has hitherto maintained. The superiority of her fleet avails her nothing where Russia is concerned, because the latter does not have to put to sea to attack Great Britain in Asia and to bring about from that continent the collapse of the British world empire. Should there come a genuine conflict between Russia and Great Britain in Asia, the probability is strong that a coalition war would be the outcome, and that must involve France on the one hand and Japan on the other. In its further development such a war might involve the United States and the Triple Alliance. In what sense these possibilities would develop is uncertain, and Great Britain is not to be censured if she seeks in every way to involve the United States upon such a plea as the solidarity of Anglo-Saxon interests. Any other ally, with the exception of Japan, is out of the question with Great Britain. All the European Powers have been taught what an alliance with Great Britain means and what is usually gained by it. This distrust of the honor and good faith of Great Britain is inherent in all the other European Powers. Hence there remains only the United States, since Japan alone, even if she placed herself unconditionally at the disposal of British interests, is not powerful enough to second Great Britain to such an extent that the latter could successfully wage a great war and at the same time maintain her squadrons on every sea for the protection of British interests.

"But is the British effort to effect an alliance with the United States likely to meet with success? We do not believe it. Least of all will the British phantom of Anglo-Saxon solidarity of interests suffice to assure the British of American support. . . . Great Britain will yet find out that where she is concerned the United States will play the very part that she herself has played as regards the other Powers of Europe. For in politics the United States is even cleverer and less scrupulous than Great Britain herself."

The solidarity of Anglo-Saxon interests is a source of amusement to the *Dresdener Nachrichten*, which styles it "a British invention that grew out of the war with Spain." According to this German newspaper, the British had at first no idea that the United States would get the best of Spain, as is proved by the attempt of the then British ambassador to combine Europe against the American republic. "But afterward, when the Yankees easily shot the Spanish ships full of holes, there was a change of tone in London. John Bull was suddenly filled with a new political inspiration, which prompted him to say to the Yankee: 'Thou art my dear Brother Jonathan, to whom I am united by a tie of the strongest mutuality of interest. Therefore I call myself entirely thine and am ready to go all over the round earth with thee through thick and thin.'"—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

THE PACIFICATION OF IRELAND.

THE land legislation relating to Ireland and the visit of King Edward and his consort to that region are "events of first-class importance," according to the *Indépendance Belge* (Brussels), which regards these things as details in the great scheme to federate the British empire and as incidents in the policy of Mr. Chamberlain. To quote the anticlerical daily:

"The visit was long projected, but the illness of Edward VII. to begin with and circumstances subsequently led to its postponement. It was felt in London that the appearance of the sovereigns among the people of the sister island would disarm many animosities, assuage many resentments, especially as England is showing a disposition to heed the just claims of Ireland. The scheme of agrarian reform for Ireland voted by the House of Commons is undoubtedly a great concession, altho it was adopted by the cabinet only as a political maneuver for the purpose of strengthening by the whole Home-Rule vote the Unionist majority which is disintegrating more and more. The Irish members did not look into the situation too keenly. Deserting the Liberals, who have been their allies so long, they played into Mr. Chamberlain's hands because they found an advantage in doing so. This agreement will last as long as it can, but it has saved the British ministry for the time being. That the concessions made to the Irish will not disarm the home-rulers is understood, since their leader, Mr. Redmond, lately declared that his friends will continue to claim every possible political right—that is to say, autonomy for Ireland.

"However, there is satisfaction for the present, and the results already obtained made the Irish resolve to give Edward VII. and his queen a most cordial reception. It is true that some municipalities refused to present addresses of welcome to the sovereigns, but this attitude of absolute irreconcilability is condemned by the majority. This partial abstention is attributed to the fact that the Irish politicians depend for the funds which swell their purses upon the Irish in America, who hand over their money only in proportion to the display of anti-British feeling made by the Irish leaders. This calculation is wholly false, for it goes without saying that British political circles will persist in their present attitude of conciliation toward Ireland only in case the Irish agitation proper comes to an end, and only if they find they can, by reasonable concessions, rid themselves of an internal question violently agitated every time England is involved in external difficulties.

"It can be foreseen that the masses will by no means follow the irreconcilables in this spirit, and that, having been given satisfaction regarding the agrarian question, which is by far the most important, they will be sensible of the token of confidence given by the sovereigns in officially visiting Ireland, and it is to be hoped that the pacification of the country will result naturally now that the quarrel has lost its keen edge, and that matters have reached the point of calm discussion of differences, respecting which both

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sides formerly showed themselves uncompromising. The fact that Mr. Chamberlain led the majority to vote agrarian reform at a time when the Government could be saved only by the Irish votes constitutes perhaps the most dexterous move ever made by this statesman."

That stanch organ of Home Rule, *The Freeman's Journal* (Dublin), while speaking of the visit of the King and Queen with the utmost cordiality, declares that the event will not influence the movement for Irish autonomy, and with reference to the land bill it remarks:

"It is the fond belief of Unionists that if the land question were settled the national question would cease to trouble them. That is a view that ignores the political history of Ireland during the past century. Neither the repeal agitation nor the Fenian movement, the two most formidable movements of the nineteenth century in Ireland, were concerned with the agrarian question. All this speculation is, however, conditional. The effects of the bill can not be calculated upon until we know what the bill is going to be. If the House of Lords lives up to its record in Irish affairs, the bill will not effect much. Even the House of Lords, however, may have learned something from recent events. Should the bill emerge from the ordeal undamaged, much will still depend upon the spirit of its administration. The Estates Commissioners must be seen in action. Granted, however, that they are prepared to play the parts of honest brokers, and that the landlords will be satisfied with getting their real net income in fair securities in exchange for their land, there is no reason why the bill should not work."—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

THE STRUGGLE FOR TIBET.

LHASA, the remote capital of the secluded land of Tibet, will shortly be visited by a special mission from the British Government. China, whose permission was necessary, has consented to this action, and the authorities in London thus gain an object which, as the London *Spectator* says, they have sought to attain for a hundred years. "It must not be forgotten," says this observer, "that, secluded as Tibet is, and weak as she may be, she is no mere province of China, but a semi-independent state, governed from Peking with great difficulty and by the exercise of a most subtle and unscrupulous policy." The same paper also tells us:

"Tibet is almost the last of the really secluded lands with a working Government left upon the planet, and the commission, supported as it is sure to be by men familiar with Tibetan tongues, will have rare opportunities of observation. It will be able, if fairly fortunate, to decide whether the Dalai-Lama is Pope or Incarnation, or both, and will, no doubt, settle once for all a most doubtful and important point—namely, who actually rules in Tibet. At present some say the Dalai-Lama, some the abbots of the great monasteries, and some the Imperial Resident who 'advises' both. . . . There are reasons in the new position both of Russia and of France why it is important to ascertain exactly what Tibetan policy is. Both Powers have now a prospective interest in threatening Lhasa. We have much to offer in the way both of trade and of contingent support, and it is believed that the Lamas, in spite of their seclusion, understand very well the future dangers which the weakening of the Chinese empire may bring upon their seclusion and independence. . . . How far Tibet is able to take care of herself is a problem as yet unsolved. The Lamas control a population of about six millions, very widely scattered, and it is believed, tho upon very imperfect evidence, that if seriously threatened they would be assisted, for religious reasons, by some Lamaist tribes beyond the sphere of their own authority. It is doubtful, however, whether their subjects, tho strong and enduring, are, one or two clans excepted, good fighting men, and certain that they are insufficiently provided with the weapons of modern warfare, and especially deficient in good cavalry. Their country is of course eminently defensible; but still they have seldom fought successfully against the Chinese, and of late years they have never ventured to resist a yoke which they are believed to find somewhat galling."

"Lhasa," declares the correspondent of the London *Times*, "is the stronghold of Lamaistic Buddhism, a debased form of Buddhism largely overgrown with tantric philosophy. Of the five great Avatari Lamas in whose successive reincarnations its spiritual authority is vested, the Dalai-Lama, who resides at Lhasa, is the chief. . . . Lhasa is, in fact, the Rome of Central Asian Buddhism, and the many-storied Po-to-la on the hill to the west of the city is its Vatican, whence its influence radiates through the innumerable lamaseries or Buddhist monasteries not only into Turkestan and Mongolia and Western China, but across the Himalayas." This is the Power with which Russia, according to the *Kreuz Zeitung* (Berlin), has concluded a treaty that has for its object the exclusion of Great Britain from the entire Tibetan region. We quote:

"The provisions of the treaty, as made public at the time, indicate for the empire of the Czar an immense addition to the sphere of its Asiatic conquests. China appears to have relinquished its rights to Tibet. In the event of disturbances, Russia is to restore order. She is to protect the land from any foreign foe. Russia may rule the land through agents of her own and she is granted the right to build railroads and to exploit the mines. Russia is not to interfere with the religious faith of the people and she may not force any creed upon them. Finally, the Chinese are granted some commercial advantages. The provisions of the treaty as thus outlined have caused doubts in various quarters as to their authenticity. It is difficult to believe that China has actually relinquished her rights in Tibet to Russia. . . . But that some agreement has been arrived at between the two Powers regarding the territory between the Himalayas and the Kuen-Lun is probable from the nature of the situation. Russia has for years striven to gain a footing in Tibet. Her military 'tourists' penetrate 'in the interest of geographical science' gradually but unceasingly into the interior. Her efforts to reach the lonely monasteries and to establish relations with the Dalai-Lama were for a long time vain. The main object has yet to be attained, but she has been able to make good use of the 'explorations' by never yielding one inch of the territory in which she has planted herself. The Russians began active measures through the St. Petersburg scientist, Professor Badmaieff, who journeyed to Tibet some years ago and succeeded in reaching Lhasa after great privations. He was thereupon received by the Dalai-Lama in audience and was capable enough to inspire that spiritual potentate with a desire to cultivate close relations with Russia. The trip of the first Tibetan embassy to Livadia in the autumn of 1900 was the direct political result of the Badmaieff mission. This success of Badmaieff was due partly to the fact that as a born Mongol he understood conditions in Central Asia and could therefore handle the Tibetans in the right way, and partly to the tension between Great Britain and Tibet, that grew steadily and was for a time likely to end in open war. Great Britain had managed by able diplomacy to draw within her influence the Nepal and Butan princedoms, then vaguely dependent upon China and Tibet. She thus naturally aroused the suspicions of the Tibetan Government. . . . The situation became more and more strained, and had not the Boer war broken out in the mean time there would have been an open onslaught of the British upon the Dalai-Lama. We have in these facts an explanation of the readiness of the Tibetan ruler to conclude a treaty with Russia and of the sending by the former of a confidential mission in the autumn of 1900 and the summer of 1901. The end in view has been gained, thanks to the secrecy maintained with regard to it. The understanding with Russia is an accomplished fact. Great Britain finds that should she be inclined to adventure beyond the Himalayas, Russia will be on hand ready to play the part of defender of the independence of the land."—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

TWO NAVIES CONTRASTED.—"If President Roosevelt were to lay before the Americans the simple fact that their navy is not in a satisfactory state," observes the German imperialist organ, the Leipzig *Grenzboten*, "he would raise a storm of indignation. Manifestly, however, there is a lesson for the Americans in the fact that a powerful German squadron has extended its practise maneuvers as far as Lisbon, whereas the American home squadron, notwithstanding the Dewey boastings, could not venture, after its last drills in the Caribbean Sea, to extend the range of its maneuvers as far as Europe." It also says: "In these circumstances it is not surprising that President Roosevelt in his speeches dwells more and more upon the need of a strong navy, by which he must desire to bring home to his countrymen that the American navy leaves very much to be desired, not in regard to quantity merely, but also in regard to quality."

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BOOKS RECEIVED.

THE LITERARY DIGEST is in receipt of the following books:

"The Life and Labors of Pope Leo XIII.," with a Summary of his Important Letters, Addresses, and Encyclicals.—By Monsigneur Charles de T'Serclaes. Edited and extended by Maurice Francis Egan, G.V.D., LL.D. (Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago, $2.50.)

"The Saint of the Dragon's Dale."—William Stearns Davis. (The Macmillan Company, $0.50.)

"The Failure of Jesus and His Triumph." (The Argus Press, Red Wing, Minn., limp leather binding, $1.00.)

"Dramatic Criticism."—A. B. Walkley. (E. P. Dutton & Co., $1.50)

"The Vigilantes."—Miss C. C. Ellerson. (Walker-Ellerson Publishing Company, New York.)

"The One Woman."—Thomas Dixon. (Doubleday, Page & Co., $1.50.)

"The Faith of Robert Louis Stevenson."—John Kelman. (Fleming H. Revell Company, $1.50 net.)

"Evolution of the Japanese."—Sidney L. Gulick. (Fleming H. Revell Company, $2 net.)

CURRENT POETRY.

The Throbbing of the Air.

By EDITH M. THOMAS.

I.

Thither, my heart!
(Thou, so long blind,
Thou, so long grieving apart!)
Thither, where marginless rivers of tremulous air
Over the far, green, happy meadows wind,
Thither carry thy quest, my heart, and find
What Other Heart is beating there!

II.

Thou hast questioned the Dawn
And the deep-browed Night,—
Still, the veil was undrawn!
Now, ask thou of kindred things the long-sought boon:
The dark and the dim were not kindred—but Fervor and Light.
Seek thou what Other Heart, half-veiled to thy sight,
Beats in the glowing candor of Noon!

—In August *Harper's Magazine.*

Harvest Time.

By MARTHA FENNER.

When little Bacchus in purpling shadows
Drinks to the harvest year;
When the harvest moon with her keen bright sickle
Mows through the valleys sere;
When golden Plenty and Peace her sister,
With the Bacchanals, come arm in arm,
To drink of the year's rare vintage flowing
In the red wine rich and warm:

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Then little Bacchus in purpling shadows
Lifts his golden goblet high,
And drinks, with the Bacchanals in waiting,
To the bright days soon to die;
And the harvest moon grows faint and fainter;
And dims and dies in the chill of the morn,
While the east wind blows through the blackened grasses
To answer the hunter's horn.

—In August *Scribner's Magazine*.

PERSONALS.

A Painful Incident. — A somewhat seedy-looking person called on George H. Daniels, general passenger agent of the New York Central Railroad, recently, declares *Collier's Weekly*, and asked for a pass to go to Buffalo.

"Ah, indeed?" said Mr. Daniels, shying a bit at the unexpectedness of it. "May I ask on what grounds?"

"On the grounds of the New York Central Railroad, of course," explained the visitor with refreshing coolness; for it was a hot day. "I can walk over the grounds of anybody else." And Mr. Daniels was so overcome by the explanation that he could not hold his pen in his hand long enough to sign his name to the needed document."

Made a Spider His Excuse.—The New York *Tribune* tells this story of the boyhood days of Governor Durbin, of Indiana:

The principal of the school that he attended was a man of considerable severity. The boys all held him in great awe. They were therefore amazed when young Durbin one day said to them:

"Do you dare me to go up to the principal and say 'Hello' and slap him on the back?"

"We certainly do," they replied.

"Well, I'll do it," said Durbin. "I'll do it to-day. But what will you give me for letting you see me do it?"

"I'll give you that there bamboo fishin' pole of mine," an illiterate boy said.

"All right," Durbin agreed. "Watch me when school begins."

The principal sat on an elevated platform. The reckless Durbin, as soon as the session opened, advanced to him, and, sure enough, gave him a hard whack on the back, and at the same time exclaimed "Hello!"

The principal turned fiercely.

"What is the meaning of this?" he cried.

"There was the biggest spider on your back I ever saw, sir," said the boy.

"Oh, was there?" said the mollified principal. "Thank you, my lad, for knocking it off. Where is it tho?"

"It escaped down that crack," said Durbin.

A Correction.—In an article in this column in THE LITERARY DIGEST of August 1, entitled "How Sherman Saved a Piano," the name "Albert Edward, Prince of Wales," should be "The Grand Duke Alexis of Russia," who visited Washington after the Civil war was over.

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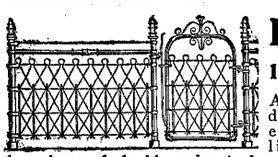

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MORE OR LESS PUNGENT.

A Home Thrust.—CHOLLY: "Aw, Miss Clara, do you believe in the transmigration of souls?"

CLARA: "Certainly; I've often seen a man make an ass of himself."—*Brooklyn Life.*

No Independence.—TYED: "This is the Fourth of July."

KNOTLEY: "Why don't you say Independence Day?"

TYED: "It is also the anniversary of my marriage."—*Brooklyn Life.*

Only One.—MISS BRAGG: "When the present King of England was here in 1860 my grandfather entertained him at dinner. Our family plate was used on that occasion, and the Prince——"

MISS SHARPE: "Had to use a plate borrowed from the neighbors, I suppose."—Philadelphia *Press.*

Hungry Freddie.—Little Freddie, aged four, was visiting his grandpa, who always asked a blessing at the table. One day when the bell rang for dinner Freddie came running in from his play all out of breath, climbed up into his high-chair, and exclaimed: "Hurry up, grandpa, and read your plate! I's awful hungry"—*Lippincott's Magazine.*

A Misnomer.—A very pompous woman attempted to leave a car while it was in motion, and the little conductor detained her with the usual: "Wait until the c-a-a-r sthops, leddy!" "Don't address me as 'lady,' sir!" she said haughtily. "I beg your pardon, ma'am, but we are all liable to mek mistakes," was the immediate reply.—*Lippincott's Magazine.*

Current Events.

Foreign.

THE BALKANS.

August 3.—It is said that fresh representations regarding the excesses in Macedonia are made to Turkey by the Powers.

August 6.—The Macedonian revolutionary committee fixes August 31 for a general uprising against Turkey. Bulgarian insurgents blow up the governor's palace in the town of Keushevo, north of Monastir, and kill fifty Turks. The Porte decides on extreme measures to suppress the revolt.

August 7.—Seventeen hundred Bulgarians are routed by four Turkish battalions near Sorovitch.

August 8.—The Russian consul at Monastir is murdered by a Turkish soldier.

August 9.—Insurgents massacre villagers in the vilayet of Monastir.

THE VATICAN.

August 4.—Cardinal Guiseppe Sarto, Patriarch of Venice, is elected Pope to succeed Leo XIII.; he takes the name of Pius X.

August 5.—American pilgrims are first to be received by the new Pope. Cardinal Oreglia is appointed Camerlengo.

August 9.—Pius X. is crowned Pope in St. Peter's in the presence of 70,000 people.

OTHER FOREIGN NEWS.

August 3.—Members of the Portuguese cabinet are guests of Admiral Cotton on board the United States flagship *Brooklyn* at Lisbon.

General Gomez's commission finds 50,000 sol-

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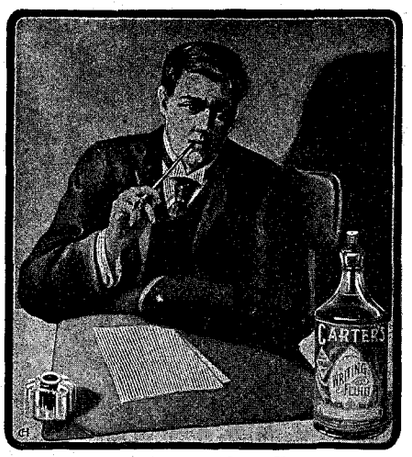

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diers entitled to pay, and that the pending Cuban loan will only pay about half of the claims.

August 4.—Details of the agreement between the Cunard line and the British Government are announced.

The Chinese Government makes a formal demand for the extradition of the staff of the *Su-Pao*, a reform journal at Shanghai.

The International Wireless Telegraphy Congress is opened in Berlin.

August 5.—Great Britain instructs its minister in China not to accede to the demand for jurisdiction over the Chinese reform editors.

The annual British naval maneuvers begin with twenty-six battle-ships and forty-three cruisers and other craft.

August 6.—The shipping trust agrees to permit its British vessels to continue in England's military, naval, and postal services.

August 7.—There is an encounter between French and Turkish troops on Morocco border.

August 8.—Russia is reported to have made a secret treaty with Tibet, and the Chinese minister to Tibet to have been withdrawn in consequence.

The Hungarian cabinet resigns owing to failure of Count Hedervaris's program.

August 9.—An anarchist assaults the French Premier, M. Combes, at Marseilles; M. Combes is uninjured.

Domestic.

August 3.—The case of Representative Littauer's connection with the Lyon glove contract is referred to Attorney-General Knox.

The war maneuvers begin off Bar Harbor, Me.

A boom to elect General Miles commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic is started in Maryland.

August 4.—It is reported to the Agricultural Department that food adulteration of the most startling kind is practised in some European countries.

Directors of the steel trust accept the resignation of Charles M. Schwab and elect William E. Corey his successor.

An ordinance is adopted in St. Paul prohibiting the use on July 4 of blank cartridges, bombs, pistols, and other noise-makers.

August 5.—The Treasury Department orders twenty cargoes of foreign food products to be held up at various ports for examination under the new Pure Food law.

Gen. S. B. M. Young is designated by the President to succeed General Miles in the command of the army.

William J. Bryan refers to Grover Cleveland as a "bunco-steerer" in a speech before the County Democratic convention at Urbana, Ohio.

August 6.—The Board of Conciliation requests Judge Gray to name a seventh member of the board to act as umpire and break the deadlock over grievances in the authracite region.

August 7.—Lieutenant-General Miles on his retirement issues a farewell address to the army.

Experiments in wireless telegraphy between Cleveland and Buffalo are successfully made.

Baron Speck von Sternburg presents his credentials as German Ambassador to President Roosevelt at Oyster Bay.

August 8.—Lieut.-Gen. Samuel B. M. Young assumes command of the army.

In the naval maneuvers the enemy off Maine surrendered to the defense.

August 9.—President Roosevelt's letter to Governor Durbin of Indiana in condemnation of lynching is made public.

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CHESS.

[All communications for this Department should be addressed: "Chess Editor, LITERARY DIGEST."]

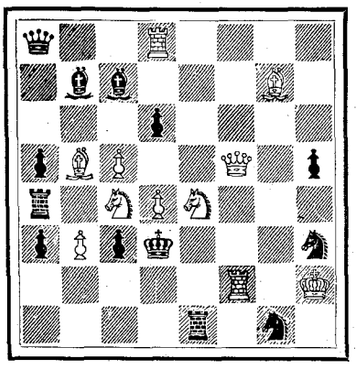
Problem 853.

By A. F. MACKENZIE.

Special Prize *Sydney Morning Herald* Tourney.

MOTTO: "Swinging upon Cobwebs."

Black—Twelve Pieces.



White—Eleven Pieces.

q 2 R 4; 1 b b 3 B 1; 3 p 4; pBP2Q1p; r1SPS3; pPpk3s; 5R1K; 4r1s1.

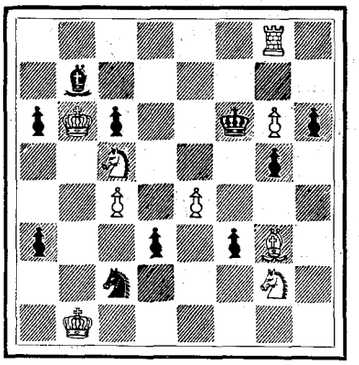
White mates in two moves.

Problem 854.

By M. FEIGL.

A Prize-Winner.

Black—Ten Pieces.



White—Nine Pieces.

6R1; 1b6; pK p2k Pp; 2S3p1; 2P1P3; p2p1pB1; 2s3S1; 1Q6.

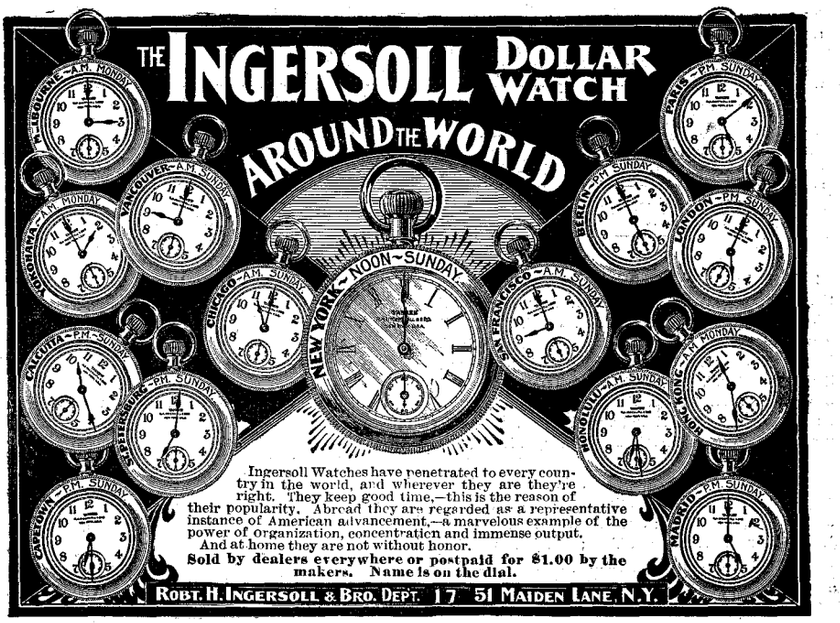
White mates in three moves.

Solution of Problems.

No. 845. (Black B instead of White on Q R 3.)
Key-move: R—K R 4.

No. 846.

1. Q—K 3 / P—R 5 ch
2. R x P ch / K—B 4
3. R—R 5, mate



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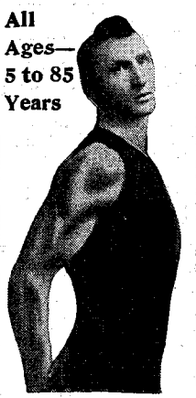

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1. ..... P—B 4	2. Q—K 7 ch K x R	3. Q—K 3, mate		
1. ..... P—Kt 6	2. R x R P ch K x R	3. Q x P, mate		
	2. ..... K—B 4	3. Kt x P, mate		
1. ..... P—R 6	2. R—B 5 ch K x R	3. Kt—Kt 3, mate		
	2. ..... K—R 5	3. Q—Kt 3, mate		

Solved by M. W. H., University of Virginia; the Rev. I. W. B., Bethlehem, Pa.; M. Marble, Worcester, Mass.; the Rev. G. Dobbs, New Orleans; F. S. Ferguson, Birmingham, Ala.; H. W. Barry, Boston; A. C. White, New York City; A. Knight, Tyler, Tex.; the Rev. J. G. Law, Walhalla, S. C.; C. N. F., Rome, Ga.; O. C. Pitkin, Syracuse, N. Y.; R. H. Renshaw, University of Virginia; E. A. C., Kinderhook, N. Y.; E. N. K., Harrisburg, Pa.; Dr. J. H. S., Geneva, N. Y.; H. A. Seller, Denver; F. Gamage, Westboro, Mass.; "Twenty-three," Philadelphia; G. C. Spencer, Greenwich, Conn.; G. Patterson, Winnipeg, Can.; J. E. Wharton, Sherman, Tex.; Dr. J. L. Cardozo, Brooklyn; "Chess-Club," Ouray, Colo.; R. O'C., San Francisco; O. Hagman, Brooklyn.

845: Z. G., Detroit.

846: The Rev. W. Rech, Freeport, Ill.; W. E. Griffin, Atchison, Kan.; A. Paget, Huntsville, Can.; E. A. Kusel, Oroville, Cal.; W. F. Duffy, Montgomery, La.; Miss A. O'Brien, San Francisco Cal.

Comments (845): "Skilfully made and somewhat perplexing"—G. D.; "Very good"—J. E. W.; "First class"—C. N. F.

846: "Peculiar and interesting"—F. S. F.; "Idea obvious; construction has merit"—G. D.; "Fine mates"—J. G. L.; "Charming"—J. E. W.; "Good"—C. N. F.

In addition to those reported, Mrs. A. G. Fuller, Aintab, Turkey, solved 833 and 834.

The Lennox Prize Game.

Dr. M. F. Lennox offered a prize for the shortest and most brilliant game played in the recent Minnesota State Tournament. The Vienna Gambit Tourney has quickened interest in this style of opening, and here we have a game that for dash, sparkle, sacrifices, and general brilliancy, is hard to beat. The players are experienced Chessists, being champions of their respective cities.

ELLIOTT. *White.*	ROPER. *Black.*	ELLIOTT. *White.*	ROPER. *Black.*
1 P—K 4	P—K 4	13 R—K sq	P—Q 4
2 P—B 4	P x P	14 R x Kt	K x R
3 Kt—K B 3	P—Kt 4	15 Q—Kt 4 ch	K—B 2
4 B—B 4	P—Kt 5	16 Q—R 5 ch	K—K 3
5 B x P ch	K x B	17 Kt—B 3	B—B 4 ch
6 Kt—K 5 ch	K—K sq	18 P—Q 4	B x P ch
7 Q x P	Kt—K B 3	19 K—R sq	B x Kt
8 Q x P	P—Q 3	20 P x B	Q x P
9 Kt—B 4	B—K 3	21 B—Kt 5	Q—K 4
10 P—K 5	B x Kt	22 Q—Kt 4 ch	K—B 2
11 P x Kt	B—K 3	23 R—B sq ch	K—Kt sq
12 Castles	K—B 2		

White announced to mate in two moves.

From the Vienna Tourney.

SWIDERSKI BEATS TSCHIGORIN.

Bishop's Gambit.

TSCHIGORIN. *White.*	SWIDERSKI. *Black.*	TSCHIGORIN. *White.*	SWIDERSKI. *Black.*
1 P—K 4	P—K 4	26 P—Q 4	Kt—B 2
2 P—K B 4	P x P	27 P x P	Kt x Kt
3 B—B 4	Kt—K B 3	28 P x Kt	Q x P
4 Kt—Q B 3	Kt—B 3	29 P x P	Q—B 4 ch
5 Kt—B 3	B—Kt 5	30 K—R sq	P x P
6 Castles	Castles	31 P—Q R 3	Q—B 3
7 P—Q 3	B x Kt	32 B—Kt 4 ch	K—Kt sq
8 P x B	P—Q 4	33 Q—Q 3	P—R 3
9 P x P	Kt x P	34 Q—Q 8 ch	K—R 2
10 B x Kt	Q x B	35 R—K 8	B—B 4
11 B x P	Kt—Q sq	36 P—K R 4	Q—B 5
12 Q—Q 2	P—Q B 4	37 K—Kt sq	Q x R P
13 P—B 4	Q—Q 2	38 Q—Q 5	K—Kt 3
14 Q—B 2	Kt—K 3	39 B—K sq	Q—Kt 5
15 B—K 5	P—B 3	40 R—K 3	R—Q 2
16 B—B 3	P—Q Kt 3	41 Q—Kt 8	R—Q 8
17 Q R—K sq	B—Kt 2	42 R—K 7	K—R 4
18 Kt—R 4	Q R—K sq	43 Q—K 8 ch	B—Kt 3
19 Kt—B 5	Q—Q B 2	44 Q—Kt 5 ch	B—B 4
20 Q—R 4	B—B sq	45 Q x P	B—K 5
21 Kt—K 3	Q—Q sq	46 Q—R 5 ch	P—Kt 4
22 Kt—Q 5	Kt—B 2	47 R x B	Q x R
23 R x R	Kt x R	48 K—B sq	Q—Q B 5 ch
24 R—K sq	R—B 2	49 K—Kt sq	Q—K 7
25 Q—Kt 3	K—B sq	50 Resigns.	

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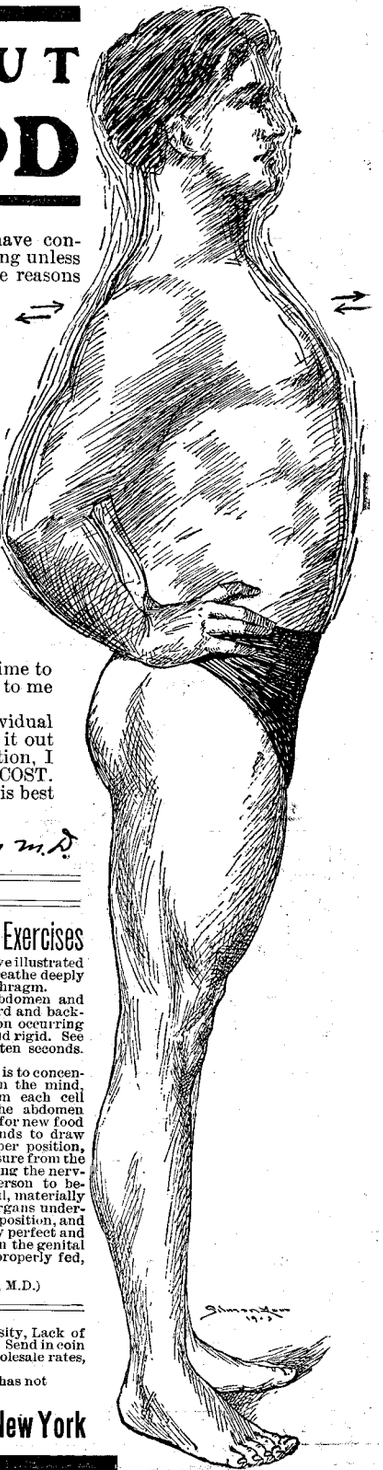

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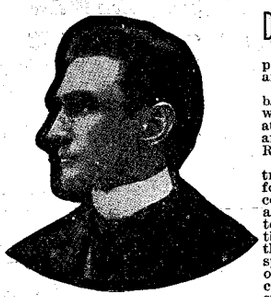

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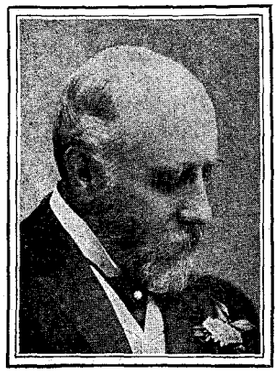

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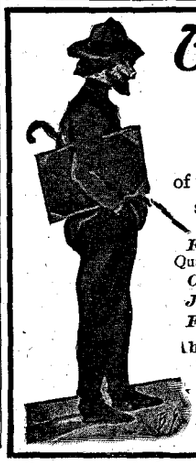

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